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Testing a Model of the Development of Trust in

Situations of Conflicting Interests

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Testing a Model of the Development of Trust in Situations of Conflicting Interests

by

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Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my family.

To my husband, Jason, you demonstrated a daily commitment to having my best interests at heart in helping me to achieve my dreams. To my son, Mark, you reminded me it is important to continue to pursue your dreams, no matter what obstacles you face. And to my parents, Susan and Philip Robison, you taught me that the key to reaching your dreams is perseverance.

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Testing a Model of the Development of Trust in

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The purpose of this study was to test a theoretical model that explains how interpersonal trust develops from interactions in personal relationships. The sample consisted of 311 individuals who were randomly recruited with their dating partners for a longitudinal study on dating relationships.

Using interdependence theory as a framework, I tested a model of how trust develops from behaviors and attributions in handling situations of conflicting needs, wants, and desires. This model also examined both the direct and indirect effects of two background characteristics, adult attachment style and parental divorce, on beliefs of trust. The model explored whether attributions partially mediated the direct relationship between the background characteristics and trust. Lastly, multiple group analyses

explored whether gender and two developmental factors, stage of relationship involvement and developmental change in relationship involvement, moderated the simultaneous relationships among the predictor variables and trust.

The analyses testing my model of the development of trust examined two separate outcomes: trust in partners' benevolence and trust in partners' honesty. The results from the path analyses revealed that the data fit the model for trust in partners' benevolence well enough for the importance of the predictors to be interpreted, but did not fit the model for trust in partners' honesty. The findings showed that in the overall model of trust in partners' benevolence, partners' voice and individuals' attributions were significant predictors of trust. The findings for the multiple group comparisons further revealed that the model was not significantly modified by stage of relationship involvement, developmental change in relationship involvement, or gender. A few marginal findings, however, suggest areas for future research.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Trust is an essential ingredient for sustaining a happy, healthy romantic relationship (Holmes, 1991). When individuals trust their partners, they know that their partners have their best interests at heart, even during times when their partners' behavior seems antagonistic to their own needs. Trust provides protection against the anxiety related to the risk of hurt and exploitation, especially during situations of conflicting interests, or those times in which the needs, desires, and preferences of partners conflict.

In this dissertation, my primary goal is to propose a theoretical model to be tested that explains how interpersonal trust develops from interactions in personal relationships. Using interdependence theory as a framework, I offer a definition of interpersonal trust and a model that will examine how trust develops directly from the behavior and attributions surrounding experiences that partners garner during interactions in handling situations of conflicting interests. In addition, this model will examine both the direct and indirect effects of two background characteristics, secure adult attachment style and parental divorce, on beliefs of trust. The model will also explore whether or not attributions partially mediate the direct relationship between the background characteristics and trust. Lastly, the analysis will be the first to explore whether or not gender and two developmental factors, stage of relationship involvement and developmental change in relationship involvement, moderate the simultaneous relationships among the predictor variables and trust.

Interpersonal Trust: Definitional Elements and Conceptualizations

Researchers agree that interpersonal trust is a phenomenon specific to a relationship or a relationship partner rather than a generalized tendency towards trusting others (Driscoll, Davis, & Lipetz, 1972; Holmes, 1991; Holmes & Rempel, 1989; Larzelere & Huston, 1980; Rempel, Holmes, Zanna, 1985); they differ slightly, however, in the ways in which they have defined trust. For the purposes of this dissertation, I define interpersonal trust as individuals' confident expectations that partners can be counted on to be responsive to individuals' needs and the beliefs that partners' motives are benevolent and honest, particularly in situations of conflicting interests. My definition of trust synthesizes the two most important elements of trust as defined by other researchers: (a) individuals have expectations that partners' behavior will be responsive to individuals' needs in the future, and (b) individuals attribute partners' motives as benevolent and honest. Individuals gather evidence for these expectations and attributions in situations of conflicting interests.

My definitional elements of trust are based on the work of two groups of researchers, Larzelere and Huston (1980) and Rempel, Holmes, and Zanna (1985), each of whom conceptualized trust in slightly different ways. Although my dissertation assesses trust using the Larzelere and Huston (1980) measure, both of these conceptualizations contribute to the understanding of the broader theory of trust

development. I will now briefly examine the theoretical basis for my definitional elements of trust.

Expectations of Partners' Responsiveness in the Future

The first element of my definition of trust is that individuals who trust their partners expect that their partners can be counted on to be responsive to their needs in future interactions. Being responsive means that partners will consider individuals' welfare and act in ways that go beyond partners' own self interests and take into account individuals' interests. Support for this element comes from the two conceptualizations of trust posited by both groups of researchers mentioned above. Although the Larzelere and Huston (1980) conceptualization did not set out to directly study the element of future expectations, these researchers developed a measure of trust in which the items used to assess individuals' beliefs about partners have expectations regarding future behavior embedded within them. For example, the items, "My partner is truly sincere in his/her promises," and "I feel that my partner can be counted on to help me," refer to the expectation that partners will follow through on their behavior and be helpful towards individuals in some future situation. Thus, although it may at first appear that Larzelere and Huston focused on motives by defining trust in terms of beliefs that partners are benevolent and honest, rather than in terms of beliefs about partners' behavior, these researchers did, in fact, emphasize behavior by creating a measure of trust that assessed perceptions that partners would act in a sincere and helpful manner in future interactions.

In their conceptualization of trust, Holmes and his colleagues (Rempel, Holmes, & Zanna, 1985) identified three components: predictability, dependability, and faith. Faith refers to beliefs that partners will be responsive to individuals' needs whatever the future may hold. Predictability refers to beliefs that partners are predictable and stable. Dependability refers to beliefs that partners are reliable and can be counted on to fulfill their promises to others. Although the component faith most closely captured the positive expectations about partners' future responsiveness, predictability and dependability also support the notion that individuals hold expectations that their partners will be responsive to their needs in the future. For example, when partners' behavior shows a predictably consistent and stable pattern of responsiveness, then individuals will be more likely to expect similar behaviors of responsiveness from their partners in the future. Furthermore, drawing conclusions that one's partner's character reflects trustworthy attributes such as kindness, generosity, honesty, and benevolence, allows individuals to more easily expect partners to be responsive to individuals' needs in the future. Expectations about positive outcomes acts as a priming effect for determining the causality or attribution of partners' behaviors.

Positive Attributions of Partners' Motives

The second element of my definition of trust is that individuals who trust their partners make positive attributions for their partners' motives for behavior. Specifically, individuals attribute their partners' motives to be benevolent and honest. Support for this element comes directly from Larzelere and Huston's (1980) study and indirectly from

Rempel, Holmes, & Zanna (1985)'s study. Larzelere and Huston (1980) were the first researchers to conceptualize trust as a relationship-specific construct. These researchers defined trust in terms of two important beliefs about partners' motivation: trust in partners' benevolence and trust in partners' honesty. Trust in partners' benevolence refers to individuals' beliefs that their partners will not only be focused solely on their own interests, but also on individuals' interests and that their partners are genuinely interested in the welfare of individuals. One way that partners might demonstrate that they can be counted on to take others' needs into consideration is by acting supportively even when their support is costly. For example, one partner can listen to the anxious thoughts of the other in a crisis. Trust in partners' honesty refers to individuals' beliefs that their partners will be honest and sincere in their promises and in future interactions. Partners can demonstrate honesty by being forthright in conversations regarding painful, upsetting, or difficult issues. Trust in partners' honesty allows individuals to rule out more easily the possibility that partners' behavior is motivated by alternative, self-interested reasons, such as exploitation or manipulation. Thus, individuals' belief in partners' honesty facilitates their belief in partners' benevolence.

Although Larzelere and Huston (1980) intially conceptualized beliefs of trust involving benevolence and honesty as two sets of beliefs, a factor analysis of their data revealed that among samples that included daters who were closely involved (i.e., exclusively dating, engaged, or cohabiting), married, and divorced people, these beliefs represented one factor of trust, rather than two distinguishable factors. In contrast, a

principle axis factor analysis of a sample of dating individuals and their partners (Jacquet & Surra, 2001) using the Larzelere and Huston (1980) measure of trust revealed that beliefs of benevolence and honesty were two separate and distinguishable factors. These findings directly supported Larzelere and Huston's (1980) original theoretical conceptualization of trust. The difference in measurement between these two studies suggests that the way in which individuals attribute partners' motives as benevolent and honest may be related to the degree of relationship involvement and relationship status. In this study of trust in daters, I use the results of Jacquet and Surra (2001) to justify my decision to test my model separately for beliefs of honesty and benevolence.

Although the Rempel, Holmes, and Zanna's (1985) study conceptualized trust in terms of three components (i.e., predictability, dependability, and faith), the essence of my second definitional element of trust, that individuals attribute partners' motives as benevolent and honest, is embedded within the items that capture these three components. A few examples will illustrate how this study indirectly supports the second definitional element of trust. The item used to assess the faith component, "Whenever we have to make an important decision in a situation we have never encountered before, I know my partner will be concerned about my welfare," suggests that individuals' believe partners' motives are benevolent because they know that in new situations of conflicting interests, partners will be take into account individuals' needs. A reverse-scored item used to assess dependability, "In our relationship I have to keep alert or my partner might take advantage of me," implies that individuals' do not believe partners' motives are

benevolent, but malevolent, and that they must be vigilant in order to avoid being exploited by the partner. Lastly, another item used to assess dependability of partners, "Even when my partner makes excuses which sound unlikely to me, I am confident that he/she is telling the truth" implies that partners are motivated by honesty and sincerity and would not purposely try to deceive individuals. These items illustrate that the concept of attributing partners' motives positively, in terms of benevolence and honesty, is supported in the wording of the items despite the fact that this conceptualization did not explicitly articulate these beliefs.

In conclusion, even though the different conceptualizations from the two groups of researchers appear to measure trust differently, they demonstrate considerable conceptual overlap and converge in such a way that they both either explicitly or implicitly support the two elements of my definition of trust. Now I will more closely examine the theory of how these two elements of trust, the relevant expectations and attributions, are formed.

The Development of Interpersonal Trust:

An Interdependence Approach

Individuals are thought to develop trust by watching their partners' behavior and inferring their underlying motives (Kelley, 1979; Rusbult, Wieselquist, Foster, Witcher, 1999; Holmes, 1991; Holmes & Rempel, 1989; Wieselquist, Rusbult, Foster, & Agnew, 1999). During the daily negotiations and coordination of behavior, partners observe each other and attribute underlying motives for the behavior they witness and the verbal

communication expressed. After watching partners' behave in a variety and number of situations of conflicting interests over time, individuals form stable beliefs of trust. Although individuals form beliefs of trust based on their experiences in the relationship and the ways in which partners coordinate their lives, theorists argue that certain situations are more diagnostic than others, revealing underlying motives for behavior (Holmes, 1991; Holmes & Rempel, 1989). These diagnostic situations allow greater opportunities for partners to form beliefs of trust.

The Role of Situations of Conflicting Interests

Expectations and attributions central to trust are thought to develop most strongly as the result of experiences with specific interpersonal dilemmas: situations of conflicting interests (Holmes, 1991; Holmes & Rempel, 1989). Situations of conflicting interests refer to the inevitable times in romantic relationships in which the needs, desires, and preferences of coupled partners are at odds. Interdependence theory posits that these situations of conflicting interests include contention at the level of behaviors, as well as at the more abstract level of personal styles, attitudes, and values (Kelley, 1979).

During situations of conflicting interests, individuals have a greater risk of getting hurt than at times when partners have correspondent or similar needs, desires, and preferences (Boon & Holmes; 1991; Kelley, 1979; Kelley & Thibaut, 1978). For example, in situations of conflicting interests, individuals may be more likely to use their intimate knowledge of their partners to manipulate or exploit partners in order to assure that their own needs are met. This increased risk of harm is related to partners'

interdependence. The more interdependent partners are, or the more partners can influence each others' affective rewards and costs, the more control they have in causing harm or doing good to each other. Thus, due to the potential for exploitation and manipulation embedded within situations of conflicting interests, these situations provide individuals the best opportunity to examine partners' behavior and decipher their underlying motives; it is in these situations of conflicting interests that individuals can learn whether or not their partners truly have individuals' best interests at heart (Holmes, 1991; Holmes & Rempel, 1989).

Individuals develop trust from observing partners behave during situations of conflicting interests in ways that partners' sacrifice their own needs in order to promote individuals' needs. Individuals then attribute these behaviors as signs of partners' underlying benevolent and honest motives. An example will illustrate the process of how beliefs of trust are formed from the experiences partners garner in situations of conflicting interests.

An Illustration of Developing Trust in Situations of Conflicting Interests

Jill and Greg Wilson had plans to eat their favorite meal, Jill's family recipe for spinach lasagna, and watch a video on a Friday night. That day at work, Jill talked with Greg on the phone and revealed her disappointment that she had not had a chance to make the lasagna before leaving for work as she had promised she would. She also told Greg that she wanted to stay late at work in order to finish a project. Greg offered to skip

the running workout he had planned for after work and, instead, go home to prepare the lasagna.

Later that night after eating two helpings of delicious lasagna prepared by her husband, Jill thought about what Greg had done. In order for trust to develop, Jill must first notice that Greg's behavior deviated from what his preferences would have predicted. In this example, Greg made a sacrifice: he gave up a favorite activity, running, in order to make their favorite meal. Recognizing the behavior as sacrificial or as a deviation from his preferences, however, is not enough to develop trust. Jill must also interpret Greg's behavior as evidence of his honest and benevolent motives towards her. She must believe that Greg sacrificed his running time because he was sincerely motivated to meet Jill's needs and not because he was too tired to run or because he, too, loved lasagna.

Jill could adopt yet another interpretation of Greg's behavior as motivated by self-interest: Greg volunteered to make the sacrifice as a way to manipulate Jill. For example, Jill might believe Greg would later mention his sacrifice in order to make her feel guilty so that she would allow him to go on a hunting trip with the guys. The interpretation of Greg's behavior as motivated exclusively by self-interest, without allowing for the fact that Greg was sincerely motivated to met Jill's needs, does not bode well for the development of Jill's trust in Greg's benevolence and honesty.

Although trust is theorized to develop more strongly in situations that allow for little ambiguity for partners' motives (Holmes & Rempel, 1989), this example illustrates

that in any situation of conflicting interests, individuals may be able to generate alternative explanations of self-interest for their partners' behavior. Therefore, this analysis suggests that, although the behavior that partners exchange during situations of conflicting interests serves as an important first step in forming beliefs of trust, what may matter even more is the type or nature of the attributions individuals make regarding partners' behavior. Different situations of conflicting interests pose varying risks and afford different opportunities for the formation of beliefs of trust. In the next section, I examine a few situations of conflicting interests that are relevant to this study.

Cases of Situations of Conflicting Interests

Although there are numerous types of situations of conflicting interests, I discuss two cases that are relevant to this study of the development of trust. Interdependence theory addresses the first case of a situation of conflicting interests, when partners have different preferences for how to spend their time (Surra & Longstreth, 1990). For example, if one partner wants to watch the basketball game and the other wants to go to the movies on a Saturday night, the couple will have to make behavioral choices regarding what to do separately or together in order to deal with divergent preferences for leisure activities. The risks involved in this situation of conflicting interests are about exploitation: no one wants to always spend time doing what their partners want to do and not getting to spend time participating in activities they enjoy. When partners spend their time together participating in activities that only one of them, it sends the message to individuals that their partners do not really care about their interests. However, when

couples find successful ways of balancing participation in favorite activities together, a mutual feeling develops that both partners' preferences matter. Thus, the manner in which partners coordinate different preferences for activities can build trust.

This study will examine the effect of partners' behavior on individuals' trust regarding situations in which coupled partners have different preferences for how to spend their time. Although the questionnaire used in this study will not directly measure this case of conflicting interests, it addresses the behavioral choices partners make in response to encountering this situation of conflicting interests. Specifically, I examine partners' reports of how they usually act when individuals and their partners have different ideas about how to spend their time.

A second case of a situation of conflicting interests relevant to the proposed dissertation study is an open conflict between partners. Open conflicts, or "overt opposition between one person and another" (Peterson, 1983, p. 366), may result from a variety of triggers. One such trigger includes an unsuccessful resolution of behavioral choices that extends beyond the concrete level of behaviors and into the more abstract level of personal styles, attitudes, and values (Kelley, 1979). For example, one partner may label the other as lazy and inconsiderate because the partners continue to have opposing views regarding a set of standards for cleanliness of the bathroom.

Another trigger of open conflict includes an exchange of a series of hurtful messages that have escalated (Braiker & Kelley, 1979; Gottman, 1979). The escalation of the exchange of hurtful messages often begins with a single expression of a hurtful

statement made by an individual to his or her partner. Although some hurtful statements may represent unintentional words spoken in haste, frustration, confusion, or exhaustion, some hurtful statements are motivated by individuals' intentional desire to harm their partners (e.g., Vangelisti, 1994; Vangelisti & Young, 2000). Findings from two studies of college students showed that when hurtful statements made by individuals to their partners were deemed intentional, particularly if these behaviors were perceived as occurring in a context of ongoing, frequent hurtful interactions, these behaviors had a distancing effect on their relationships (Vangelisti & Young, 2000). Even if a hurtful statement is unintentional, however, it may still harm the relationship.

Regardless of the intentions of individuals, hurtful statements pose risks for the relationship. When individuals make hurtful statements to their partners, partners feel conflicted between responding in a way that damage the relationship by defending their own behavior, values, or character, or responding in a way that supports the relationship or the other (Rusbult, Verette, Whitney, Slovik, & Lipkus, 1991). Hurtful statements pose a clear risk that partners will retaliate and in doing so may produce an open conflict that escalates into a cascade of exchanges of hurtful messages, one more disparaging than the next. This type of open and contentious conflict may permanently damage the relationship in such a way that neither partner is willing to make themselves vulnerable to the other again. Thus, the risks of open conflicts, particularly those that are highly contentious and disparaging, may include long-term hurt, extreme relationship dissatisfaction, and permanent damage to the vitality of the relationship. In terms of trust,

the extreme vulnerability that openly contentious conflicts pose for romantic partners is that individuals risk conveying the message that they will do anything or say anything to get their needs met and that they do not care about their partners' welfare.

When partners choose to react to the hurtful statement with supportive behaviors instead of retaliatory behavior, in contrast, they demonstrate that either they thought the hurtful statement was unintentional or that, regardless of intentionality, partners are motivated to avoid engaging in quid pro quo by returning the harm towards individuals. Thus, responses to hurtful statements that generate open conflicts present unique opportunities to build trust by limiting the extent, amount of contention, and the scope of the conflict. Furthermore, research examining conflict behavior of marital couples shows that the actions of one partner can positively change the course of the conflict and help to repair the damage that may have resulted (Gottman, 1994). For example, when individuals return a critical comment with a compliment or an empathetic question instead of retaliating, it sends the message that individuals care about their partners' welfare. Thus, the manner in which individuals and their partners eventually resolve their open conflicts, such as reaching some type of compromise or agreeing to disagree and respecting each others' differences, can lead to the development of trust.

The second case, open conflict, is relevant to this study because I examine individuals' attributions that arise from reflecting on an open conflict as it was defined in this study as "situations in which partners openly disagreed or felt upset about something in their relationship" (see Appendix C).

The two cases presented here represent only a subset of the situations of conflicting interests that partners may face at some point in their relationship. These cases illustrate that the risks embedded within different situations of conflicting interests allow individuals the opportunities to develop trust by examining partners' behavior in order to reveal their partners' underlying motives. Although this study will not measure situations of conflicting interests directly, it will examine both partners' behavior and individuals' attributions that occur in the context of two situations of conflicting interests reviewed here. In the next section, I will examine how the behavior partners chose to enact in situations of conflicting interests and the attributions that surround this behavior form the beliefs of trust.

The Development of Trust: Behavioral Choices and Attributions as Proximal Predictors

Based on interdependence theory, the process of developing trust that occurs during situations of conflicting interests has been described as an evaluative process that involves two important steps (Gray, 2006; Homes, 1991; Rempel & Holme, 1989). First, in situations of conflicting interests, partners must chose to behave in such a way that reflects a deviation from their preferences, or a sacrifice of their own needs in order to meet the others' needs. Second, individuals must engage in cognitive processing of making attributions, or generating plausible reasons and explanations for behavior surrounding situations of conflicting interests that promote positive interpretations of partners' behavior and their underlying motives. As shown in the theoretical model of the

development of trust (see Figure 1), both behavioral choices and attributions surrounding behavior directly influence the formation of beliefs of trust. These two variables represent proximal predictors because according to interdependence theory, these variables are most closely connected to this evaluative process of how beliefs of trust develop (Holmes, 1991; Holmes & Rempel, 1989). I review some of the relevant research supporting the first of the proximal predictors, behavioral choices in situations of conflicting interests.

Behavioral Choices in Situations of Conflicting Interests: One Proximal Predictor of Trust

In situations of conflicting interests, individuals make choices about how to behave. Individuals may choose to promote their self interests and ignore partners' welfare, or they may choose to respond in a way that takes into consideration their partners' needs. According to interdependence theory, when individuals display behavior that is responsive to the partners' needs, or to the outcomes of the couple, this demonstrates that individuals have had a *transformation* of motivation (Kelley, 1979). Being responsive means that, in some cases, individuals may sacrifice getting their own needs met for the good of their partners. In the lasagna example, Greg sacrificed his running workout in order to ensure that Jill and Greg were able to have a wonderful date night which included eating their favorite meal, lasagna. As suggested earlier, both Greg's behavior, sacrificing his workout to make the lasagna, and the attributions surrounding it are important steps on the way to developing beliefs relevant to trust.

Empirical support of individuals' transformational behavior in romantic relationships comes from two of Caryl Rusbult's programs of work: the research on accommodation (Rusbult, et al., 1991; Wieselquist, Rusbult, Foster, & Agnew, 1999; Yovetich & Rusbult, 1994) and willingness to sacrifice (Van Lange et al., 1997). Only the research on accommodation will be reviewed here because this study uses a modified conceptualization of accommodation as a way to operationalize the occurrence of or absence of transformations. The accommodation studies shed light on the conditions surrounding individuals' transformational behavior in terms of observable behaviors, self-reported tendencies of behavior, and the willingness to behave in ways that demonstrate the occurrence of transformations.

Evidence of Transformations in Close Relationships: Accommodation Research

Individuals' accommodation is the willingness, when their partners act in a potentially destructive manner, to inhibit their tendency to respond destructively in kind, and instead, react constructively (Rusbult & Zembrodt, 1983, Rusbult, Zembrodt, & Gunn, 1982; Rusbult et al., 1991). Researchers argue that, according to interdependence theory, accommodation represents a transformation of motivation because in this type of situation, individuals' constructive responses to partners' destructive behavior demonstrates that individuals are more concerned with what is best for partners or for the relationship than they are concerned about their own welfare.

Although situations in which partners act in a potentially destructive manner present opportunities for transformations, Rusbult and her colleagues (e.g., Rusbult,

Olsen, Davis, & Hannon, 2001) define these situations as accommodative dilemmas, rather than as situations of conflicting interests. As I have defined it, situations of conflicting interests involve interpersonal conflict, or times in which two partners have conflicting needs, desires, or preferences. Accommodative dilemmas are a subtype of interpersonal dilemmas, which is a broad term that Rusbult and her colleagues use to encompass both interpersonal conflict and intrapersonal conflict, or times in which an individual has internal conflict among varying needs, desires, and preferences that relate to the welfare of the individual versus the welfare of the partner or the relationship. Regardless of this distinction, the data from the accommodation studies represent one of the strongest pieces of evidence that individuals make transformations in situations in which there are some type of conflicting needs. For the sake of clarity and given the considerable conceptual overlap between Rusbult's and my terminology, it seems reasonable that I use the term *situations of conflicting interests* to refer to the paradigms described in the Rusbult accommodation studies.

In order to examine the factors that influence both accommodation and the self-reported willingness to accommodate, Rusbult and her colleagues developed a typology of responses to the particular situation in which partners behave badly towards individuals (Rusbult & Zembrodt, 1983; Rusbult, Zembrodt, & Gunn, 1982; Rusbult et al., 1991). Researchers categorized partners' responses along two dimensions: (a) constructive versus destructive responses, and (b) active versus passive responses. From this categorization, four subtypes of responses emerged. Constructive and active

responses, labeled *voice*, is the first subtype and includes discussing problems, seeking help from a friend or therapist, and changing oneself. The second subtype, labeled *loyalty*, is described by what happens when partners have constructive and passive responses. This subtype includes waiting and hoping for things to improve, supporting the partner in the face of criticism, and praying for improvement. Both *voice* and *loyalty* are deemed constructive responses in that they serve to promote the relationship, not necessarily benefit the individual. The last two subtypes of responses are described as destructive because they have a negative influence on the relationship, although these responses may benefit individuals in some cases. Destructive and active responses, labeled *exit*, include separating, moving out of a joint residence, and screaming at one's partner. The last subtype of responses are destructive and passive, labeled *neglect,* and includes avoiding discussing problems, letting things fall apart, and ignoring the partner or spending less time together.

A series of six studies on accommodation provided evidence that individuals make transformations, during situations of conflicting interests, on behalf of their partners (Rusbult et al., 1991). The strongest evidence of transformations comes in the form of accommodative behavior that is observable and measurable. In Study 6, a sample of 41 couples, most of who were involved in regularly dating relationships (8% were living together or engaged or married), completed several tasks involving behavioral measures of accommodation in three different situations of conflicting interests. Couples participated in two 5-min discussions of conflicted issues that they had previously

identified as moderately important, in which their conversations were audio taped, transcribed, and coded. Couples also played three matrix games that involved earning points based on both their own and their partners' trial-by-trial decisions in which each participant received false feedback regarding their partners' competitive choices. In another task, couples attempted to reach consensus regarding fictitious moral dilemmas in which each participant received false feedback regarding their partners' refusal to adjust their recommendations. Participants also separately completed questionnaire measures of individuals' accommodation, satisfaction, and commitment.

Across eight different behavioral measures utilized in Study 6, the data showed that individuals accommodated in various ways. In the discussion task, individuals accommodated by reacting positively, instead of retaliating, in response to their partners' destructive, hurtful comments or criticisms. In the matrix games, individuals showed accommodation in two ways. First, individuals accommodated by allowing their partners to earn high points while they accepted a low personal score in a given trial in which individuals believed their partners had initiated a destructive choice. Second, individuals accommodated by initiating the next trial with a constructive choice (i.e., a choice that would benefit both partners) immediately following a trial in which they falsely believed their partners had initiated a destructive choice (i.e., a choice that benefits one partner but not the other). In the moral dilemma task, after having received false feedback that their partners' recommendation was either very discrepant or slightly discrepant from their own recommendation, individuals showed accommodation by how much and how

quickly they adjusted their recommendations to align more closely with their partners' recommendations.

In addition to providing evidence of transformations via accommodation behavior, the data from Study 6 further demonstrated that these behavioral accommodation tendencies were related to individuals' self-reports of their constructive and destructive reactions to their partners' behavior in everyday situations of conflicting interests. In the self-report questionnaire of accommodation, individuals indicated the degree to which they reacted in each of four ways with exit, voice, loyalty or neglect to the potentially destructive situation described in the stem. An example of a voice item included in the questionnaire is, "When my partner is unintentionally thoughtless, I talk to him or her about what is going on to try to work out a solution." It is noteworthy that the accommodation measure used in Study 6 and in the other studies in the series, did not ask individuals to specifically recall a particular situation of conflicting interests when answering the questions, but asked for individuals' perceptions of how they usually or typically react into these situations. This distinction may be important because individuals are more likely to be accurate in their recall when they imagine a specific incident then when they try to summarize how they typically react.

Regression analyses examining the link between behavior and self-reported accommodation revealed that greater behavioral accommodation in the laboratory tasks was associated with reduced self-reported tendencies toward destructive reactions and enhanced self-reported tendencies toward constructive reactions. The connection between

self-reported behavior and actual behavior was stronger for destructive reactions than for constructive reactions. These data suggest that, when faced with situations of conflicting interests in which their partners act in potentially destructive ways, the manner in which individuals report they behave is related to the ways they actually do behave.

Although the data from Study 6 suggest that individuals make transformations in the form of accommodation, the generalizability of these findings are limited in several ways. First, these data represent behavior in laboratory and artificial situations of conflicting interests (e.g., matrix games, fictitious moral dilemmas). These artificial situations may not have generated the internal conflict that individuals face when evaluating their needs against broader social concerns, including their partners' needs, which occur everyday in romantic relationships. Thus, individuals may be willing to accommodate in artificial situations and when under the observation of an experimenter, but not in naturally occurring situations of conflicting interests. Second, the procedures restricted participants from communicating face-to-face with their partners. Individuals may behave differently in interactions with direct contact with their partners.

Because the behavioral data from the artificial and contrived situations of conflicting interests were strongly correlated with the questionnaire data these potential limitations might not be that problematic. First, as the purpose of the accommodation questionnaire is to capture individuals' typical responses when their partner does something potentially destructive in naturally occurring situations of conflicting interests, individuals' behavior in artificial situations of conflicting interests may predict how they

behave in naturally occurring situations of conflicting interests. Second, the correlation also suggests that the use of self-report measures may be a valid way of measuring transformations via accommodation tendencies without the need to measure actual behavior. Thus, in the present study, in which no behavioral indices of accommodation were available, one could make confident extrapolations from the questionnaire data as accurate indicators of actual behavior that partners exchanged.

Additional evidence of transformations came from the other five studies in this series investigating accommodation through self-reports (Rusbult et al., 1991). Accommodation was related to the interdependence of the relationship being investigated. In Study 1, 25 undergraduate students, 93% of whom were either currently or had previously been involved in romantic relationships, reported that they would be more likely to accommodate under conditions of normal social concern than under conditions of lower social concern. After having read essays depicting hypothetical situations of conflicting interests, individuals' reported that they would be less likely to respond constructively and more likely to respond destructively under conditions of lowered social concern. Lowered social concern was operationalized in the essays in the following ways: when individuals' behavior would have no consequences; or when individuals' behavior would have no impact on the other's feelings about them or their own feelings about themselves whereas normal social concern involved consequences to others' feelings. In Study 2, 144 undergraduate students read essays depicting hypothetical situations of conflicting interests in which researchers manipulated the

interdependence level (i.e., acquaintances, casual dates, regular dates, or seriously involved) between the protagonist and the potential offender. After being instructed to place themselves in the role of the protagonist, individuals reported that they were more likely to accommodate in relationships characterized by greater interdependence. Study 1 and Study 2 suggest that accommodation may represent some type of cost and that individuals' motivation for accommodating lies, in part, in the nature of the interdependence of the relationship.

Study 3, Study 4, and Study 5 were cross-sectional surveys of 498 undergraduate students, typically described as dating regularly (7% engaged and 1% married), in which individuals reported higher tendencies to accommodate in open-ended and structured measures when they felt more committed, more satisfied, had invested more in the relationship, and perceived lower alternatives. Taken together, the data from these five studies provided some evidence that individuals, at least undergraduate students, make transformations in the form of accommodation, particularly in relationships characterized by greater interdependence.

Another experiment of undergraduate students suggested that individuals in romantic relationships accommodate in naturally occurring situations of conflicting interests (Yovetich & Rusbult, 1994). In this study, 51 undergraduate students, who typically described their relationships as exclusive dating (6% were engaged or married), wrote open-ended descriptions of two types of incidents (i.e., a within-subjects variable): the most recent incident and the most memorable incident in which partners "made you

feel upset or angry – was rude or irritable, said something unkind, spoke to you in a raised voice or otherwise showed a lack of consideration for you and your relationship" (Yovetich & Rusbult, 1994, p. 145). Individuals then completed a 24-item measure that asked participants the degree to which they *considered* reacting with each response. Finally, individuals completed a parallel measure which assessed participants' perceptions of the degree to which they *actually* reacted with each response.

Results from an analysis of variance of this experiment (Yovetich & Rusbult, 1994) showed that individuals often considered more negative reactions than they reported enacting, suggesting that individuals experienced a transformation of motivation. Furthermore, a main effect of Reaction Type (considered behavior vs. actual behavior) was significant for destructive but not constructive reactions, implying that the differences between considered and actual behavior was more strongly related to the ability of individuals to inhibit negative reactions than enact constructive reactions. Although the retrospective nature of these data may be subject to cognitive distortions, these data tentatively suggest that when primed to recall and describe a particular incident of conflicting interests, individuals have an awareness that discrepancies exist between what they may have considered doing and what they actually did in response to these real-life situations of conflicting interests involving their romantic partners. These discrepancies imply that individuals' behavior was shaped by broader social goals rather than their own immediate reactions. It is plausible, however, that individuals only reported that their actual behavior was more constructive than considered behavior in

order to present themselves in a more desirable light. Furthermore, the possibility exists that social desirability effects may be operating in the majority of the studies of accommodation reviewed so far.

My study, however, may be less prone to social desirability effects than the accommodation studies because of measurement differences reflected in the variations of the wording of the stem of the items. In my study, individuals report the way they usually act when they have different ideas than their partner about how to spend their time. In comparison, the Rusbult and colleagues accommodation measure (Rusbult et al., 1991) had participants report their typical reactions in situations in which their partner engages in a potentially destructive act. Changing the stem of the items to reflect a more neutral situation, one in which partners have different preferences for how to spend their time, may involve assessing reactions to a less threatening situation. In comparison, priming individuals to recall times in which their partner engaged in potentially destructive acts seems to carry more emotional valence than recalling times in which partners had different preferences for how to spend their time. In addition, the potentially destructive acts themselves could include threatening behaviors, such as yelling, throwing an object, or pushing the partner, and recalling these behaviors may raise individuals' stress or arousal level. The implication here is that compared to participants in my study, participants in the Rusbult studies may have been more aware of the potential of looking bad in front of the researcher because of a fear of having themselves, their partners, or their relationships judged for the their socially undesirable behavior. As a result,

participants in the Rusbult studies may have monitored more closely and altered what they reported.

In order to reduce the possible social desirability effects identified as limiting the first study in the Yovetich and Rusbult (1994) article, individuals in a second study participated in an experiment that assessed reaction time involving 20 hypothetical scenarios. These scenarios varied along constructive and destructive terms. An example of a constructive scenario included, "A friend helps you with a very difficult assignment" whereas an example of a destructive scenario included, "During an argument, your partner says, 'Sometimes I think I'd be better off without you'." After listening to an audiotape of each scenario, individuals were asked to turn the page of their response booklet, read the two responses, and then select either a constructive or a destructive response by placing a check next to the response. Response times were recorded.

Most important to the current discussion are the findings that showed an interaction of reaction time by scenario type. Reaction time was significant for the destructive scenario condition and not the constructive scenario condition. Under the destructive scenario condition, when reaction time was limited, individuals reacted more destructively, they chose the exit and neglect responses more frequently than the constructive responses. When reaction time was plentiful, however, that is, when participants were not instructed to make a decision quickly, individuals reacted more constructively by choosing the voice and loyalty items more frequently than the destructive responses. Under the constructive scenario condition, individuals chose

constructive reactions irrespective of reaction time. Although this study did not utilize naturally occurring situations of conflicting interests, it demonstrated that making transformations, in the form of accommodation, takes time and mental resources. The implications of these findings for this paper are that the beliefs and attributions relevant to trust may not have the opportunity to be developed if partners do not have the cognitive resources available (e.g., time) to make transformations when faced with situations of conflicting interests.

Summary

Taken together, the data from the accommodation studies showed that individuals make transformations in the form of accommodation both in artificial and naturally occurring situations of conflicting interests. Furthermore, these data demonstrated a connection between self-reports of accommodation and behavioral tendencies, suggesting that how individuals report that they behave in naturally occurring situations of conflicting interests is related to how they behave in artificial situations of conflicting interests. For researchers, this finding implies that using self-reports of behavioral tendencies might be an acceptable and certainly cost-efficient way to measure transformations via accommodation. Lastly, the findings from these studies showed that individuals' willingness or motivation to accommodate for their partners, both for those fictitious characters depicted in the essays and for their current or past romantic partners, was a function of the interdependence of their relationships.

The data suggest that partners' behavior, particularly if their behavior demonstrates responsiveness to individuals' needs in the form of accommodation, is one important proximal predictor of trust. Thus, in my model of the development of trust (see Figure 2), I hypothesize a direct relationship between partners' accommodation responses (i.e., voice, exit, loyalty, and neglect) and individuals' trust in partners' benevolence and honesty. Partners' voice will be positively associated with individuals' trust (Hypothesis 1). Partners' exit will be negatively associated with individuals trust in partners' benevolence and honesty (Hypothesis 2). Partners' loyalty will be positively associated with individuals trust in partners' benevolence and honesty (Hypothesis 3). Partners' neglect will be negative associated with individuals trust in partners' benevolence and honesty (Hypothesis 4). These hypotheses are rooted in the idea that individuals will notice their partners' constructive or destructive behavior.

Making transformations may be an important step toward developing trust, but these behaviors represent necessary, but not entirely sufficient, conditions in order for trust to develop. According to the evaluative process depicted in the theoretical model of trust development, relevant positive attributions must occur (see Figure 1). Individuals must perceive that the reasons for partners' behaviors are because partners are motivated by benevolence and honesty and not by self-oriented needs. Applying the lasagna example, in order to build trust in Greg, it is critical that Jill must also believe that the reasons for Greg's sacrifice of giving up his running workout lie in his sincere desire to meet Jill's needs.

The Role of Attributions in Developing Trust:

A Second Proximal Predictor

According to interdependence theory, when individuals attribute partners' behavior to their benevolent and honest motives, individuals develop stable expectations of partners' future responsiveness. Returning to the lasagna example again, after Jill notices that Greg sacrifices his running workout, she must attribute the reasons for Greg's sacrifice to his motivation for a sincere desire to look out for her welfare. She must believe that he truly cares about her preferences for eating her favorite meal. If Jill attributes Greg's sacrifice of forgoing his running workout to be motivated by his own selfish interests, either so that he would not have to eat leftovers or so he could later make Jill feel guilty about not agreeing to let him go hunting with his friends, Jill would not be able to form stable beliefs that Greg will sincerely have her best interests at heart in future situations of conflicting interests. The example illustrates that even if partners' behave in a sacrificial way, individuals' interpretation for the reasons underlying this behavior may be even more important to the development of trust than the behavior itself.

Few studies have directly examined how making positive attributions of partners' behavior in situations of conflicting interests leads to the development of beliefs of trust regarding partners' responsiveness in future situations and motives for partners' behavior. Some studies, however, have provided preliminary evidence for this process by establishing the connections among attributions for partners' motives and individuals'

trust in their partners. Data from three studies support the existence of connections among attributions of behavior, motives and trust.

Connections Among Trust, Partners' Motives, and Own Motives.

In their groundbreaking study, Holmes and his colleagues (Rempel, Holmes, & Zanna, 1985) developed a new measure of trust that included three components, predictability, dependability, and faith, and explored the links among these components of trust and individuals' attributions for their own and their partners' motives for involvement in their relationship. As discussed previously, these three components encompass individuals' beliefs regarding partners' dispositional nature, character, and behaviors. Predictability and dependability refer to concrete beliefs garnered from past experiences that partners are consistent, stable, and reliable, and can be counted on; whereas, faith, refers to more abstract beliefs that partners will act in responsive ways toward individuals in the future.

Using a sample of 30 married, 5 cohabiting, and 12 exclusive dating couples, the investigators assessed three types of motives for being in a relationship: extrinsic, intrinsic, and instrumental. Extrinsic motives referred to rewards obtained exclusively outside the relationship such as social status and respect. Instrumental motives referred to rewards received by one partner such as praise or support. Intrinsic motives referred to rewards received mutually by both partners, such as mutual satisfaction or empathic concern.

Although Holmes and his colleagues predicted that compared to instrumental and extrinsic motives, intrinsic motives would exhibit the greatest positive associations with the components of trust, particularly the faith component, what they found was that the connections among the attributions of motives and the components of trust differed for assessments of own and partners' motives. When individuals attributed their own motives for relationship involvement as either intrinsic or instrumental, they had more faith in their partners. However, the only motive from partners that increased their faith was when they attributed partners' motives as intrinsic, or mutually rewarding. There were no other significant associations between perceiving partners' motives as either instrumental or extrinsic and trusting partners. These data imply that only when individuals perceive partners' reasons for relationship involvement as reflective of their desire for mutual rewards or benefits for both partners (i.e., intrinsic motives), do individuals believe that partners will care about individuals' needs in future situations of conflicting interests.

The connections between individuals' attributions of their own motives and beliefs of trust were more complicated than for attributions of partners' motives and trust. In addition to having more faith in partners, individuals who perceived their own motives for relationship involvement as instrumental also trusted more in partners' dependability and predictability, but these associations were weaker than the connections to the faith component. Individuals who perceived their own motives as extrinsic were also less trusting of partners' predictability. It seems that when individuals perceive their reasons for being involved in the relationship as stemming from rewards outside the relationship,

they expect the same from their partners and, therefore, are less trusting of their partners. Whereas attributing intrinsic and instrumental reasons for individuals' own motives of relationship involvement was associated with greater trust in all three components, only attributing partners' motives as intrinsic was associated with more faith.

Although these data represent the first empirical evidence of the link between individuals' attributions of partners' motives and individuals' trust of their partners, the application of these data to support the model is problematic for two reasons. First, these data were not informative of the interpretations of motives in the context of a situation of conflicting interests. In this study, the investigators simply asked participants to answer questions regarding the reasons for their own and their partners' involvement in their romantic relationships. Second, the evaluation of motives did not relate to reasons for behavior. Thus, in terms of face validity for the connection to trust, motives for relationship involvement seem to be less important than motives for behavior in the context of a situation of conflicting interests. Despite the limited application of these data, these data do provide a crucial first step in support of the process depicted in the theoretical model of trust development by showing that attributions of motives are related to trust in general, and, in particular, beliefs about partners' responsiveness in the future. These data also demonstrate that the connections between attributions' of motives and trust differ depending on whether individuals are evaluating their own or their partners' motives.

Attributions Surrounding Laboratory Induced Situations of Conflicting Interests

Two other studies provided stronger evidence for this proximal predictor of the model by examining attributions in laboratory induced situations of conflicting interests. The results from these two studies demonstrated that variations in the types of attributions made for partners' motives were systematically related to variations in the level of couples' trust (Holmes, 1991; Rempel, Ross, & Holmes, 2001). Although the data from these two studies were analyzed at the couple level and my model makes predictions at the individual level, the application of these data to my model seems reasonable given that the researchers from these two studies reported that the results were similar when individuals were the unit of analysis. In the first study, couples who scored high on the trust scale (Holmes & Rempel, 1986) made more positive attributions of partners' motives than couples with medium or low levels of trust; couples who scored low on the trust scale made more negative attributions of partners' motives than couples with medium and high levels of trust (Holmes, 1991). These data suggest that the positive or negative nature of attributions for partners' motives are related to couples' level of trust.

In the second study (Rempel, Ross, & Holmes, 2001), two types of attributions were related to couples' joint level of trust: attributions expressed publically to partners as well as attributions measured privately through questionnaires. Couples who had high trust levels were the most positive and consistent in both the public expressions made to their partners in the laboratory discussions and their reports of private attributions. In

contrast, couples who had medium trust levels had more discrepancy between their public and private attributions; namely, they expressed more negative attributions to partners in the discussion than their reports of private attributions indicated. Couples who had low trust levels of trust had a mild discrepancy; they expressed attributions that were neutral or slightly negative whereas their private attributions were very negative, more negative than the attributions from couples who had medium and high trust levels. Thus, these data suggest a relationship between attributions of partners' motives and couples' level of trust and that this relationship differs according to whether the attributions are shared publically with partners or reported privately through questionnaires.

Although researchers designed these two studies with the a priori conclusion that trust operates in a reciprocal causal manner with varying levels of trust leading to different types of attributions, the cross-sectional nature of the data limits the determination of causality and directionality of the attributional process. Therefore, these data could also support an alternative hypothesis relevant to my model of the development of trust: the process of making different types of attributions over time leads to the development of varying levels of trust. As individuals observe their partners' making sacrifices on their behalf over time and in various situations of conflicting interests, they form stable beliefs in partners' benevolence and honesty. Thus, a limitation of these two studies is that, although they demonstrated a relationship between attributions and trust in a laboratory induced situation of conflicting interests, they have failed to untangle the direction of causality. These cross-sectional data do not answer the

question of whether attributions influence the process of developing trust or if trust influences the process of making attributions or if there is a bidirectional effect. Of course, the possibility exists that a third variable influences both trust and attributions but these studies also fail to examine any other variables as causal determinants of both trust and attributions.

Longitudinal Study of Attributions and Trust

There is one recent study that has begun to untangle the direction of causality between attributions and trust. Data from a longitudinal study of married and cohabiting couples (Miller & Rempel, 2004) provides the most compelling evidence to date in support of my model of the development of trust such that the nature of the attributions individuals made was predictive of changes in trust over time.

The research design in the Miller and Rempel (2004) study was similar to previous studies (Holmes, 1991; Rempel, Ross, & Holmes, 2001) in that participants first completed questionnaires independently prior to the discussion. Then with their partners participants attempted to resolve a contentious relationship topic in a 15 min discussion period. Following the discussion, participants independently completed items that assessed attributions of partners' behavior and attributions of partners' motives.

The methods from the current study differed slightly from previous studies, however, in that, although the same items were used to assess attributions, the instructions to participants from the current study emphasized more strongly that individuals pay close attention to the distinction between attributions for partners'

behavior – what the partner did or his or her "outward actions as you engaged in the discussion," (Miller & Rempel, 2004, p. 698) and attributions for partners' underlying motives. In regards to the attribution measures, participants were first instructed to complete ten semantic differential items that focused explicitly on partners' behavior. For example, on a 7-point scale, how pleasant-unpleasant or defensive-open was partners' behavior in the discussion? Then participants completed a similar questionnaire with ten items that focused explicitly on partners' motives underlying their behavior in the discussion, such as how uncooperative-cooperative, unresponsive-responsive, and self-centered-considerate the reasons were for partners' behavior in the discussion. Participants were reminded that "underlying motives do not always correspond to the outward behavior that you see" and that individuals can behave in nice ways, but for the "nastiest reasons," or they can behave in negative ways, but "have the best intentions for what they are doing" (Miller & Rempel, 2004, p. 699).

Before analyzing the results, researchers created two indices, partner enhancement and partner diminishment, which represented an accounting of partners' motives after the variance due to partners' behavior was removed. Partner enhancement refers to the tendency for individuals to attribute more desirable motives to partners than would be expected from their own descriptions of partners' behavior during an interaction task. Partner diminishment refers to the tendency for individuals to attribute less desirable motives to their partners than would be expected from their own descriptions of partners' behavior during an interaction task.

A set of findings strongly supported the model of the development of trust. Results from the path analyses of the longitudinal data revealed that after controlling for initial levels of trust, the more participants engaged in partner-enhancing attributions in the first phase of the study, the less likely participants were to suffer declines in trust at the 2-year follow-up. Furthermore, participants who initially engaged in partner-enhancing attributions continued to rate their partners' motives more charitably than their ratings of partners' behavior would predict when viewing a videotape of their problem-solving discussion two years later. These data suggest that seeing partners' motives more generously than the behavioral evidence implies, or engaging in partner-enhancing attributions, leads to the formation of stable and high levels of trust over time.

The path analyses also showed a reciprocal pattern of causality, which the researchers referred to as a top-down effect of trust. After controlling for initial levels of partner-enhancing attributions, the higher was trust at the beginning of study, the more likely participants engaged in partner-enhancing attributions two years later. The data from this study suggest that the researchers' conclusions of a top-down effect have merit: individuals' trust level did influence the nature of attributions individuals made over time.

The data demonstrated support for a reciprocal model with bidirectional processes of trust development: Individuals' attributions influence varying levels of trust and varying levels of trust influence attributions. Most important, this study serves as the only study to date that has attempted to untangle the directionality of the relationship between

attributions and trust by using longitudinal data. Despite this strength, the data were limited in that the sample only included participants who were married or had been cohabiting for over two years without including less committed dating couples. Studying married couples and more stable cohabiting couples might reveal well-established beliefs of trust and attributional processes whereas while studying less committed dating couples might capture part of the actual formation of beliefs of trust and the attributional processes involved in the process of forming beliefs of trust.

In contrast to the Miller and Rempel study (2004) and the other studies of attributions reviewed in this section that use samples of married and cohabiting couples, my study will use a sample of dating couples in order to capture less well established beliefs about trust. Furthermore, as was concluded from the Rempel, Holmes, and Zanna (1985) study, when predicting trust it is critical to examine attributions within a context of situations of conflicting interests. The measure of attributions used in this study assesses attributions within the context of a particular case of a situation of conflicting interests, one in which individuals recalled a time in which they had an open conflict or were upset with their partners. Individuals were asked to report on individuals' own responsibility, partners' responsibility, and external reasons for the conflict. In this study, I used only the items that assessed partners' responsibility for the conflict because these items are aligned most closely with my theory; that is, how individuals attribute the underlying reasons for partners' behavior is a critical factor in the development of trust.

Previous research has established the connection that attributions of responsibility and blame about the partner are associated with less positive relationship qualities (e.g., Sillars, 1985). In a study of married women, blaming one's husband for marital problems was negatively associated with marital satisfaction (Madden & Janoff-Bulman, 1981). Although these studies examine satisfaction and not trust, the findings might be generalizable to trust. Thus, I predict that individuals' attributions will have a direct and negative association with trust in partners' benevolence and honesty, such that the more individuals' attribute responsibility for conflict to their partners, the less they will trust them (see Figure 2, Hypothesis 5).

The Development of Trust Over Time

Although the model of trust presented so far involves an evaluative process in which individuals observe partners behavior in situations of conflicting interests and make positive attributions of partners' motives, there is some theory to suggest that this evaluative process does not happen from the onset of relationships. Instead, there is a certain point in the development of relationships in which individuals may begin to evaluate more closely their partners' behavior and motives for tangible demonstrations of care. Prior to this point in which the evaluative process of trust development takes precedence, other factors operate more strongly in forming the early beliefs of trust. This idea is supported by the theoretical speculation of John Holmes and his colleagues (Holmes, 1991; Holmes & Rempel, 1989), in which they argued that the basis for trust changes over relationship time and that the changes in the bases for trust parallel stages

of relationship development. The relative importance of certain factors that predict trust at one point in time may differ at another point in development of the relationship. In the following discussion, I will highlight some key points of this theory and explore how two background variables that lie outside the evaluative process of trust development may operate more strongly during the earlier stages of relationship development that I will study here.

Beliefs of Trust in Early Relationships

It is thought that the formation of the early beliefs of trust, referred to in this dissertation as initial beliefs of trust, coincide with the beginning stages of romance (Holmes, 1991; Holmes & Rempel, 1989). Individuals in the early stages of romance may not have been exposed to many situations involving opportunities for transformations. As a result, they may not really know for sure whether or not their partners will have their best interests at heart. Instead, initial beliefs of trust may be based on first impressions of their partners, and they may be closely connected to other interpersonal qualities of the relationship, such as feelings of passionate love and mutual attraction.

Individual differences and experiences outside the relationship also may shape the first impressions of partners, thereby influencing the formation of initial beliefs of trust. These factors might operate more strongly early on in relationships because partners do not have much information about situations of conflicting interests, particularly regarding their partners' motives in these situations. The minimal exposure to situations of conflicting interests with their partners forces individuals to rely on other sources of

information to form their initial beliefs of trust. In the literature, substantial attention has been paid to the role of adult attachment style and the influence of the family of origin, particularly parental divorce, in shaping trust-related beliefs.

The Role of Background Characteristics in Developing Trust: Distal Predictors of Trust

This dissertation will examine the role that these two background factors (i.e., secure adult attachment style and parental divorce) play in conjunction with the more proximal factors already specified in the model. These background factors are thought of as distal predictors of trust for two reasons. First, these factors lie outside of the evaluative process of building trust from behavior and attributions because they represent something that individuals bring with them into their current relationship. Therefore, these factors may have less influence on predicting trust than factors that are closer to the interaction between partners. Second, these variables represent distal predictors because they may operate more strongly at earlier stages of relationship development, before partners have been exposed to a variety of situations of conflicting. In the following section, I present findings from a few key studies of the distal factors of secure adult attachment style and parental divorce in order to establish the hypothesized connections among the variables that I propose to test in the analyses.

Adult attachment style. Individuals' attachment history with caregivers establishes their models of how worthy of love and care they are and how available and dependable others are (Bowlby, 1973). Studies of the continuity of attachment have suggested that the expectations individuals bring to romantic relationships about others as reliable and

responsive to their needs are based, in part, on their earliest experiences with caregivers (e.g., Waters, Merrick, Treboux, Cromwell, & Alberscheim, 2000). Researchers have suggested that these working models of self and others are carried into adulthood and resurface in romantic relationships (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Collins & Read, 1990; Hazan & Shaver, 1987). These models are referred to as adult attachment styles.

Although the terminology differs according to the type of adult attachment classification method and system being used, the concepts relevant to linking individuals' attachment to trust of their partners are similar. Individuals who are securely attached describe themselves as easily able to get close to others, rely on others, and have others accept them and they believe that others are generally well-intentioned and good-hearted. Individuals who are insecurely attached describe themselves in ways that reveal their anxiety or avoidance of others because they believe that if they let them, others will likely hurt, ignore, or reject them (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Hazan & Shaver, 1987). These data suggest that adult attachment style represents individuals' mental models that may influence their predisposition or readiness to trust partners.

Studies examining the connections between attachment style and trust have found that, compared with insecure individuals, secure individuals revealed evidence of greater trust in a variety of cognitive and affective experiences pertaining to romantic relationships. Data from a series of five studies utilizing a continuous measure of attachment (Hazan & Shaver, 1987) showed that secure individuals reported more trust in their partners, more memories of positive trust-related episodes, more goals for

increasing intimacy, more trust-validated events over a 3-week period, and they adopted more constructive strategies for coping with violations of trust (Mikulincer, 1998). Findings from a study of college students showed that in comparison to insecure individuals, secure individuals held stronger beliefs that their partners would not hurt or reject them if they trusted them (Baldwin, Fehr, Keedian, Seidel, & Thompson, 1993). Another study of dating couples comprised of college students and their dating partners revealed that individuals who scored higher on the secure attachment index reported greater trust in their partners than individuals who scored higher on the anxiety and avoidant indices (Simpson, 1990). Greater trust was reflected in individuals' stronger beliefs of partners' predictability and dependability, and more faith in partners as well as less insecurity about the relationship. Taken together, these data suggest that having a secure attachment style is associated with more positive experiences of trust. Therefore, I predict that individuals' secure attachment style will be positively related to individuals trust in partners' honesty and benevolence (Hypothesis 6).

These data from the studies of attachment and trust demonstrate that there is a connection between individuals' attachment style and trust in partners such that securely attached individuals reported greater trust in partners in a variety of ways. There are no data to show, however, whether or not the strength of this connection changes over relationship time. One hypothesis is that individuals' attachment style continues to influence trust in partners uniformly across developmental changes in the relationship. For example, individuals' attachment style sets up their initial expectations regarding

partners' responsiveness and then acts as a self-fulfilling prophesy by shaping the cognitive processes individuals engage in to interpret the motives underlying partners' behaviors. Based on the theory and speculation of John Holmes and his colleagues (Holmes, 1991; Holmes & Rempel, 1989), I argue, however, in favor of a competing developmental hypothesis that the effect of attachment style is strongest in the earlier stages of romantic relationships. This is because early in relationships individuals have little information about their partner, particularly regarding experiences situations of conflicting interests. Also, because partners are less interdependent at earlier stages of relationship involvement, they have less reason to be accurate about their beliefs of trust. This hypothesis suggests further that, over time, the influence of individuals' attachment style on trusting their partners loses it potency as individuals gain more experiences and insight into partners' behavior.

This dissertation will take the first step toward examining these competing hypotheses by assessing how attachment style operates uniformly or differently in conjunction with the other predictors of the model across two potential moderating variables, stage of relationship involvement and developmental change in relationship involvement.

Parental divorce: Quantitative, qualitative, and longitudinal designs. Another source of information that may shape the early beliefs of trust is the interpersonal experiences gained from an individual's family of origin. For most individuals, the family of origin is the first teacher of behavior and its symbolic meaning. The family of origin

acts a strong socializing agent, teaching individuals how to behave towards others and what they can expect from others in return. Lessons learned from the family of origin can be far-reaching and long-lasting, particularly as individuals carry this information into their romantic relationships and use it to form first impressions and early expectations of romantic partners.

Parental divorce has been one variable related to an individual's family of origin that has been shown to have far-reaching and long-lasting effects on romantic relationships. Although some aspects of the literature more strongly support a connection between parental divorce and problematic relationship outcomes for adult offspring such as the intergenerational transmission of divorce (Amato, 1996; Amato & Booth, 1991; Bumpass, Martin, & Sweet, 1991; Feng, Giarrusso, Bengtson, Frye, 1999) and problematic styles of marital conflict and interaction (Amato & Booth, 1991; Glenn & Kramer, 1987), less attention has been paid to examining directly the negative association between parental divorce and offspring's trust in romantic partners. Although these studies are somewhat scarce, there are data from both quantitative and qualitative studies of various samples and methodological designs that support this negative association.

Several cross-sectional studies of college students examined the direct effect of parental divorce on adult offspring's trust in romantic partners and support a negative association. In one study of 60 college students utilizing the Larzelere and Huston (1980) measure of Dyadic Trust, results revealed a significant correlation between parents' marital status and individuals' trust in dating partners (Johnston & Thomas, 1996).

Compared to individuals from intact families, individuals from divorced families scored significantly lower on trust. In another study of 408 psychology students that utilized the Rempel, Holmes, and Zanna (1985) measure of trust, individuals from divorced families suffered more negative relationship outcomes (van Schaick & Stolberg, 2001). Hierarchical regression analyses revealed that parental marital status predicted a significant amount of the variance in adult offspring's trust scores. Additional hierarchical regression analyses showed that parental marital status also predicted significant variance in scores of insecurity, avoidance, and anxiety assessed from a measure of attachment (Brennan, Clark, & Shaver, 1998) but did not predict variance for scores of intimacy and commitment. Thus, in comparison to individuals from intact families, individuals from divorced families had significantly lower scores on trust, higher scores on insecurity, avoidance, and anxiety, and similar scores on intimacy and commitment.

In another study of 737 college students investigating various levels of predictors of trust, assessed by the Rempel, Holmes, and Zanna (1985) measure, and six love styles (Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986), individuals from divorced families reported significantly lower trust and altruistic love in their current relationships than individuals from intact families. These data also lend some credence to the idea in this study that parental divorce is a distal predictor of trust (Sprague & Kinney, 1997). Hierarchical regression analyses revealed that for both individuals from intact and divorced families, current relationship variables (i.e., the happiness and length of relationship) accounted for the

largest proportion of variance in trust compared to the variance explained by the structural (i.e., gender, sexual activity) and family process variables (i.e., conflict, cohesion, and expressiveness of family). Furthermore, these data showed that the set of predictors accounted for more of the total variance in trust for individuals from divorced families group (i.e., up to 30%) compared to only 10% of the variance in trust for individuals from intact families. This finding suggests that the relative importance of various predictors of trust may vary in how they contribute to the beliefs of trust depending on whether individuals' grow up in divorced or intact families.

Data from longitudinal studies also support a negative connection between parental divorce and adult offspring's trust in romantic partners. In a nine-month longitudinal study of 464 coupled partners randomly selected, individuals were questioned about perceptions of certainty about their romantic relationship and perceptions of relationship problems. Compared with women from intact families, women from divorced families reported less trust in partners' benevolence and more ambivalence and conflict (Jacquet & Surra, 2001). These data suggest that for women, but not men, experiencing divorce within the context of their family of origin translates into relationship problems involving trust in individuals' adult romantic relationships.

These data come from the same sample source of individuals that will be used for my dissertation study; however, my sample will involve a smaller group of more stable, coupled partners who participated across several times of measurement. In contrast, the Jacquet and Surra (2001) sample consisted solely of the respondents who participated at

Phase 1 of the study. Therefore, this dissertation will examine the strength of a direct negative association between parental divorce and individuals' trust in partners' benevolence and honesty using a smaller subset of individuals, those who are still dating their Phase 1 dating partner at Phase 3. In addition, because the Jacquet and Surra (2001) study found a gendered pattern of effects, this dissertation will examine whether or not gender modifies the relationships among the variables in the model.

In a 17-year longitudinal study of two generations, national data collected from interviews suggested that individuals from divorced families experienced more problems as adults in establishing and maintaining successful romantic relationships than individuals from intact families (Amato, 1996; Amato, 1999). Although data showed that some offspring from divorced families fair better than those from intact families, in particular, when parental divorce serves as a relief from intense, combative parental conflict, the data also showed that very few divorces fit this description and thus, the majority of offspring from parental divorce were worse off than offspring from intact marriages (Amato & Booth, 1997).

A strong indicator of the problems offspring of parental divorce have in maintaining successful intimate relationships can be seen in the data from a study examining the intergenerational transmission of divorce; compared to individuals from intact families, individuals from divorced families were more likely to see their own marriages end in divorce (Amato, 1996). Findings in this study revealed that although several factors mediated this relationship (e.g., offspring at marriage, cohabitation,

socioeconomic attainment, postdivorce attitudes), interpersonal behavioral problems mediated the largest portion of the variance in the association between parental divorce and offspring divorce.

A more recent study based on this data set found that individuals who experienced parental divorce were more than twice as likely to have their own marriages end in divorce (Amato & DeBoer, 2001). Results supported a marital commitment perspective, that is, divorce is transmitted across generations because children witness their parents break the marital contract and as a result, form weakened commitment to the idea that marital problems are solvable and marriage is a life-long institution. Taken together, the data from the 1996 and the 2001 studies suggest that two important mechanisms that explain the link between parental divorce and offspring marital instability: (a) poor models of interpersonal behavior, and (b) weakened commitment to the idea of marital permanence. Although the data from the Amato and colleagues studies did not examine the link between parental divorce and offsprings' trust directly, the plausible mechanisms of the intergenerational transmission of marital instability might also suggest that individuals from divorced families are more likely to have trouble trusting romantic partners.

Similar to the quantitative studies, reports from a well-known qualitative study also support the negative connection between parental divorce and adult offspring's trust in romantic partners. In the numerous publications that report on a longitudinal qualitative study that investigated married individuals who were divorcing and their

offspring, the negative connections between parental divorce and offspring's trust in romantic partners were apparent in the clinical observations researchers offered at various points of measurement (Wallerstein & Blakeslee, 1989; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980; Wallerstein, Lewis, & Blakeslee, 2002). Recently, a 25 year follow-up study of the 131 children who were 3-18 years old when their parents divorced in the early 1970s revealed that these adult offspring experienced difficulties achieving love, sexual intimacy, and commitment to marriage and parenthood (Wallerstein & Lewis, 2004). As young adults, these individuals wanted to have successful romantic relationships but reported signs of wariness to being hurt, abandoned, and betrayed, all issues that relate to the construct of interpersonal trust discussed in this proposal. The specific difficulties that these offspring reported showed gendered patterns. Compared to a similar group of individuals who were from intact families, the men from divorced families were more likely to have withdrawn from involvement, reflected, in part, by the fact that they were less likely to have married or cohabited for more than six months. The women from divorced families, however, were more likely than the comparison group to have avoided being alone which often resulted into rushing into marriage at earlier ages and earlier points of relationship development, being promiscuous, or having a serious of short-lived relationships in which these women ended their relationships soon after they had begun. Thus, the results from this qualitative study suggest that young adults of divorce are more likely than young adults from intact families to grapple with issues that relate to trust in their romantic relationships.

Taken together, the results from several quantitative studies that include samples of college students and community samples, as well the reports from a significant, qualitative study suggest that experiencing parental divorce in the family of origin may negatively influence the experience of trusting partners in adult romantic relationships. Researchers Paul Amato and Alan Booth (1997) argue that "a life course perspective suggests that children carry forward into their adult lives a set of attitudes, social skills, and interpersonal orientations learned in their family of origin, and that these traits have implications for the formation and maintenance of intimate ties." (p.85). Given this theoretical argument and the data presented here, it seems reasonable to suggest that having the experience of parents divorcing may influence adult offspring to be more skeptical toward trusting romantic partners. More specifically, individuals from divorced families may be more likely to question expectations that partners' behavior will be responsive to individuals' needs in the future as well as question the beliefs that partners' behavior towards individuals' is motivated by honesty and benevolence. Thus, I hypothesize in my model of the development of trust that there will be a direct negative association between parental divorce and trust in partners' honesty and benevolence (Hypothesis 7).

Summary. The data from the attachment literature and parental divorce literature suggest that in my model, there will be a direct association between the distal predictors and trust. In the next section, I will describe the theoretical rationale for testing a unique

idea, that attributions will mediate the relationships between the distal predictors and trust.

Testing Mediation: The Role of Attributions in Mediating the Relationship Among the Distal Predictors and Trust

The literature connecting parental divorce to adult offspring's relationship outcomes and well-being in general suggests that this direct connection may be mediated by other factors. Two areas that fall outside the scope of this review but have received considerable attention and empirical support are parental conflict (Amato, Loomis, & Booth, 1995; Duran-Aydintug, 1997) and parent-child relationship (Duran-Aydintug, 1997; Gohm, Oishi, Darlington, Diener, 1998; King, 2002; van Schaick & Stolberg, 2001). This study will examine another potential mediator that to my knowledge, with the exception of an unpublished dissertation study (Besett-Alesch, 2000), has received no attention in the literature.

In the Besett-Alesch study, results showed that individuals from divorced and intact families did not significantly differ in the locus, stability, or globality of attributions. The attribution measure (i.e., a modified version of the Relationship Attribution Measure; Fincham & Bradbury, 1992) used in the Besett-Alesch study (2000) examined individuals' interpretations of partners' behavior in hypothetical scenarios in which partners behaved in various responsive and unresponsive ways towards them. In contrast, my study will examine different types of attributions, those that relate to the reasons of partners' responsibility that surround a real situation of conflicting interests

that partners have encountered in the past. I will first examine the strength and direction of the associations between secure attachment and attributions (Hypothesis 8) and parental divorce and attributions (Hypothesis 9). I predict that the attributions that individuals make regarding partners' behavior in situations of conflicting interests will partially mediate the association between parental divorce and trust in partners' honesty and benevolence (Hypothesis 10). Furthermore, I apply this same logic to the relationship between the other distal variable, secure attachment style, and trust: I predict that individuals' attributions will partially mediate the association between secure attachment style and trust (Hypothesis 11).

The theoretical rationale underlying the mediation hypotheses is that the way individuals interpret partners' behavior may be guided by a particular mindset, set of beliefs, or mental models regarding others' availability and responsiveness that are formed as a result of experiences garnered from the family of origin. It seems plausible that these two background variables might predispose individuals to be in a particular mindset at the onset of relationships which will, in turn, influence the types of attributions they make once they encounter situations of conflicting interests with their partners. Thus, for example, having a secure attachment style may predispose individuals to make positive attributions of partners' behavior, even in ambiguous situations, because securely attached individuals are believed to have formed mental models of others as responsive and reliable based on a history that included their primary caregiver being responsive to their needs. Similarly, coming from a family of divorce may predispose individuals to

make more negative, skeptical, or less benevolent attributions of partners' behavior because these individuals have witnessed from their parents' behavior that partners are capable of hurting, abandoning, or betraying each other.

Although it seems likely that the role of the distal variables will be important in the formation of the early beliefs of trust, it is less clear, theoretically, as to how these variables will influence trust as partners progress in relationship involvement. In this next section, I will provide a theoretical rationale for testing differences in the model based on variables linked to relationship involvement.

Beliefs of Trust in Later Stages of Relationships

At some point in the relationship, individuals begin to question these early beliefs and thus, they begin to more closely scrutinize their partners' behavior for tangible signs of care. As mentioned previously, Holmes and his colleagues (Holmes, 1991; Holmes & Rempel, 1989) have speculated that the basis for trust changes over time. Due to the absence of studies that examine trust from the beginning of a romantic relationship until years later, it is not clear exactly at what point in relationships individuals may early to more closely evaluate their partners' behavior and motives for tangible demonstrations of care. Research suggests that periods of change, which includes both growth and declines, may stimulate questioning of the initial beliefs of trust (Surra & Bohman, 1991). As a result, individuals invest more time and energy into searching for verifiable information that affects their beliefs during periods of change than during periods of stability. Two developmental changes in relationships are theorized to underlie changes in the bases in

trust: (a) the decline of infatuation, and (b) an increase in partners' interdependence (Holmes, 1991; Holmes & Rempel, 1989).

Developmental Changes in Relationships

Early in their relationship histories, many individuals experience an intense desire to be together with their partners, which is often associated with a masking or obliviousness to the faults and shortcomings of their partners or relationships. As infatuation declines, however, individuals may become more aware of their partners' faults and relationship problems. This greater awareness may trigger individuals' doubts, anxieties, and hesitations regarding whether or not their partners have their best interests at heart. These anxieties relate to individuals' awareness of the risks of suffering harm at the hands of their partners. In order to alleviate these anxieties, individuals may begin to scrutinize more closely their partners' behavior for its symbolic meaning.

As relationships progress, individuals experience a greater overlap of outcome interdependence with their partners in more domains and at deeper levels (Levinger, 1983). Individuals become closer to their partners by self-disclosing more personal information, organizing more of their activities around their partners' interests, and spending more time with their partners.

The intersecting of more aspects of partners' lives can have several consequences. One consequence is that individuals and their partners are likely to face new and varied situations of conflicting interests. Although Kelley (1979) argued that increases in interdependence present more opportunities for both correspondence and

noncorrespondence, it is the handling of noncorrespondence, or situations of conflicting interests, that has the greatest impact on developing trust. Only situations of conflicting interests allow individuals the chance to observe their partners' behavior for diagnostic signs of care.

Another consequence of increases in interdependence is related to the risks of relationship involvement. Individuals experience changes in the riskiness of relationship involvement in at least two ways. First, greater interdependence further heightens the risks of romantic relationships. Increases in interdependence allow partners a greater capacity for harming individuals in more arenas of their lives and in deeper ways. Individuals become more interconnected socially, economically, and interpersonally as their relationships deepen. Also, rewards become more interdependent. Facing uncharted situations of conflicting interests forces individuals and their partners to find new ways of successfully treating each other so that both partners' interests are represented. Second, greater interdependence raises individuals' awareness of their new vulnerabilities in relation to their partners. Just as individuals may perceive more risk as they gain a greater awareness of relationship problems or partner faults with the decline of infatuation, so too do individuals perceive more risk as they experience an increase in the varied situations of conflicting interests. Thus, increases in interdependence raise both the actual risks and the perceptions or the awareness level of the risks of relationship involvement.

As individuals experience an increase in the awareness of risks of relationship involvement, they may begin to feel a greater need to verify that their partners have their

best interests at heart. Because partners' motives are not always apparent, individuals use their partners' behavior as a proxy for partners' motives and beliefs (Gergen, Hepburn, & Fisher, 1986). Thus, individuals invest more time and energy evaluating their partners' behavior in situations of conflicting interests for its symbolic meaning. It is during this period of evaluation that individuals may refine, change, and modify their early beliefs of trust.

Testing Moderation

The theory discussed in this proposal suggests two possible ways that the model of trust may be modified. One way is that individuals who are at earlier stages of romance, who have not been exposed to a variety of situations of conflicting interests and perhaps are still in the infatuation period, may differ from individuals who are at later stages of romance in terms of how variables identified in the model predict trust (Holmes, 1991; Holmes & Rempel, 1989). A second way is that during times of change there should be an increased focus put on evaluating partners' behavior and making attributions (Surra & Bohman, 1991), and consequently, less emphasis on the distal predictors of trust. This dissertation will examine whether or not the relationships in this model among the predictor variables and the outcome, trust, may be moderated by two important developmental variables, stage of relationship involvement and developmental change in relationship involvement.

Differing stages of relationship involvement. The first potential moderator involves stage of relationship involvement. The model of the development of trust may

work differently for those couples who are less involved (i.e., casual daters, serious dating, and privately committed to marriage) compared with couples who are more involved (i.e., publically engaged and married). For example, because couples should be exposed to a greater number and variety of situations of conflicting interests as their relationships progress in time and interdependence, both the direct and indirect roles of the distal predictors may be different for couples who are at earlier stages of relationship involvement than for couples at later stages. Research has suggested that a developmental shift may occur when individuals have formal plans to marry their partner (Casper & Sayer, 2000). For example, partners are more likely to hold a shared vision for the future, be more interdependent, have greater pooling of their financial resources. Thus, for this study, the sample was divided into two groups: (a) individuals who were dating, casually dating, seriously dating, or privately commited to marriage (i.e., daters); and (b) individuals who were more marriage-like, either formally engaged or married (i.e., engaged). I predict that the strength of the associations between the distal variables and trust will be greater for the dating individuals than for the engaged individuals (Hypothesis 12).

Developmental change in stage of relationship involvement. The second potential moderator is developmental change in stage of relationship involvement. As suggested by Surra & Bohman (1991), times in which relationship are changing, either progressing or regressing, may be times in which individuals spend more time engaging in cognitive processes such as thinking about the relationship. Thus, the importance of attributions

relative to other predictors may be different for individuals who experience developmental change, or those individuals who report changing stages of involvement (i.e., changers), versus those individuals who report stability, or remain in the same stage of relationship involvement (i.e., stables). Therefore, I predict that developmental change in relationship involvement will moderate the relationships among the variables in the model such that the strength of the association between attributions and trust will be greater for the changers than for the stables (Hypothesis 13). Consequently, a greater focus on attributional activity for the changers might also result in a lowered importance of the distal predictors (i.e., parental divorce and secure attachment style) on trust. Thus, I predict that developmental change in relationship involvement will moderate the relationships among the variables in the model such that the strength of the association between the distal predictors of parental divorce and secure attachment style and trust will be greater for the stables than for the changers (Hypothesis 14). Because it is unclear what is the relative importance of partners' behavior during times of change, I offer no specific hypotheses regarding differences between stables and changers on the role of partners' behavior to trust.

Gender. In addition to testing two developmental moderators, I will also test whether or not gender moderates the relationships among the variables in the model. The literature suggests two plausible avenues for gender differences in the model of the development of trust involving attributions and behavior. In terms of attributions or cognitive activity, although there is mixed evidence, some research has shown that

compared to men, both married and dating women, engage in more talking and thinking about their relationships (Acitelli, 1992; Acitelli, Rogers, & Knee, 1999; Acitelli & Young, 1996; Cate, Koval, Lloyd, & Wilson , 1995; for an exception, see Vangelisti, Corbin, Lucchetti, & Sprague, 1999). In answer to open-ended interview questions about their lives, wives spontaneously talked more than their husbands about their marital relationships (Acitelli, 1992), demonstrating more relationship awareness, defined as "thinking about or focusing attention on interaction patterns, comparisons, contrasts between partners in the relationship, and thoughts about the relationship as an entity" (Acitelli & Young, 1996, p. 151).

Another study of open-ended interview questions revealed gender differences in the content and frequency of relationship thought (Burnett, 1987). Women were more likely than men to care about monitoring and evaluating relationship events and experiences. One reason for increased levels of care may be because the quality of the marriage is more important for women's well-being than marital status (Gove, Hughes, & Style, 1983). Furthermore, women often feel a greater sense of personal responsibility for the maintenance of relationships (Bell, Daly, & Gonzalez, 1987; Boneva, Kraut, & Frohlich, 2001; Dindia, 2000; Impett & Peplau, 2003), which may account for more thoughts or cognitive activity regarding their romantic relationships.

A study of college students revealed that women report thinking more complexly about their relationships than men (Martin, 1991). In addition, the literature on rumination suggests that women spend more time than men thinking about the causes of

behavior, particularly when they are distressed (Nolen-Hoeksema, & Jackson, 2001). Taking these varied data and theories into account, it seems plausible that the connection between attributions and trust in my model will be stronger for women than for men. Thus, I predict that gender will moderate the relationships among the model such that the strength of the association from attributions to trust will be greater for women than for men (Hypothesis 15).

Another body of literature shows that the role activities play within relationships differs for men and women (Wood & Inman, 1993). Gabriel and Gardner (1999) showed that according to gender socialization theory, men are more collectively oriented in their interdependence with others, that is, they tend to focus more on activities rather than on emotions. The idea that men use activity as a way to cultivate closeness has been applied to both men's friendships (for a review, see Inman, 1996) and men's dating (Surra & Longstreth, 1990) and marital relationships (Wood & Inman, 1993). In marriage, for example, men view sexual activity as a way to create intimacy, whereas women often view sex as an expression of intimacy that has already been established by talking and sharing (Bergner & Bergner, 1990; Reissman, 1990, Schneider & Gould, 1987). Because men seem to base their romantic and friendship relationships in the context of activities, shared activity participation may have more of an impact on the quality of men's romantic relationships. More importantly, the specific ways in which partners handle differences over joint activity participation may have a greater connection with men's trust than with women's trust. This idea suggests that accommodation behavior, couched

in the context of handling differences in deciding how to spend time in activities, may be particularly salient for men in terms of trust. Therefore, I predict that gender will moderate the relationships among the model such that the strength of the associations between the type of partners' accommodation and trust will be greater for men than for women (Hypothesis 16).

Summary

Guided by interdependence theory, previous researchers who have sought to explain the development of trust in close relationships have not explored empirically the simultaneous influence of both proximal and distal variables on the development of trust with a dating sample. Instead, previous research has focused on variables that have pertained directly to the interdependence process, such as evidence of transformations and attributions, but have ignored the role that outside influences play. One notable exception is a study by Caryl Rusbult and her colleagues (Wieselquist, Rusbult, Foster, & Agnew, 1999) that examined attachment style in conjunction with interdependence variables (i.e., commitment, dependence, satisfaction) in predicting trust. This study, however, did not examine attributions, parental divorce, or the variables of moderation that my model specifies. Furthermore, the majority of studies examining attributions have used samples of married couples or couples who have been cohabiting for over two years. The proposed study attempts to examine the simultaneous influence of both proximal and distal predictors on a sample of dating partners. Furthermore, this research will explore the possibility that three variables, stage of relationship involvement, developmental

change in relationship involvement, and gender moderate the relationships specified in the model.

CHAPTER 2: METHOD

Sample

The data used for this study come from a larger investigation (i.e., the UT-TRAC study) in which commitment processes in coupled dating partners were examined during interviews occurring in three phrases. The sample for the UT-TRAC study consists of a randomly selected group of never-married individuals, ages 19 to 35 years old, who were living in Austin, Texas, in 1992 and were involved in heterosexual dating relationships. Once the randomly selected individuals agreed to participate, their partners were contacted separately about joining the study. An independent company obtained the sample by random digit dialing about 36,000 households in greater Austin, Texas. Out of 861 eligible people identified in the phone calls, 27% of the individuals and their partners agreed to and actually participated in Phase 1. The final sample at Phase1 consisted of 464 dating individuals or 232 couples.

The sample is diverse with respect to race, ethnicity, income, and socioeconomic status. At the start of the study, the characteristics of the respondents were somewhat representative of the population from which the sample was drawn. The respondents were somewhat more likely than young adults in Austin to be Anglo, and slightly less likely to be Hispanic, African-American, or Asian.

The sample used for this study consists of 311 individuals (152 men and 159 women) who completed both the Phase 1 and Phase 3 interviews and who were dating the same partner at both interviews. Given that individuals who had broken up with their

original dating partner or changed partners were allowed to continue to participate in the UT-TRAC study and complete questionnaires in regards to their new dating partner(s), I decided to exclude respondents from this study if they were still broken up at Phase 3 or dating someone other than their original dating partner at Phase 3. This decision ensured that respondents included in the sample for this study had valid data for the outcome variables (i.e., trust in partners' benevolence and trust in partners' honesty) and that the predictors and the outcome matched. This decision, however, did allow for the inclusion of several respondents who had broken up at some point during Phase 2 and had renewed with their original partner by or at Phase 3 (n = 9).

There were 153 respondents who were excluded from the analyses. Eleven respondents were excluded because they had begun dating a new partner during Phase 2 and had completed the trust questionnaire at Phase 3 in regards to their new dating partner. One of these eleven respondents was reporting on their third dating partner. Twenty-five respondents were excluded because they had a new dating partner at Phase 3 and did not complete the trust questionnaire. Thirty respondents were excluded because they had no current, new, or renewed dating partner at Phase 3. Thirty-five respondents were excluded because they had dropped the study sometime during Phase 2 and another seventeen respondents were excluded because they dropped the study at Phase 3. Thirty-four respondents were excluded from the analyses because they were eliminated by the researcher eliminated at Phase 3 due to the fact that they had failed to continue participating without officially dropping out of the study. One respondent was excluded

because he did not participate in the Phase 3 interview. The final sample of 311 individuals includes 143 couples and 25 singletons, 14 of whom were men and 10 of whom were women.

The mean length of relationships in the sample used for the analyses was 27 months at Phase 1 with 5% of the UT-TRAC sample reporting they were casually dating, 45% seriously dating, 31% privately committed to marrying, and 19% formally engaged. By Phase 3, 5% of the UT-TRAC sample reported they were casually dating, 36% seriously dating, 25% privately committed to marrying, 25% formally engaged, and 10% reported being married.

I conducted supplementary analyses to examine whether attrition, defined as not completing the Phase 3 interview and no longer dating their original partner, was associated with the two predictor variables measured at Phase 1. Results indicated that secure attachment was marginally and negatively associated with attrition, X^2 (1, N = 462) = 3.68, p = .06, such that respondents who were attritted were somewhat more likely to be insecure than the respondents in the sample. Parental divorce, however, was not significantly associated with attrition. I also examined whether or not attrition was associated with differences in trust at Phase 1. Results showed that compared to respondents who were excluded, respondents in the sample were more trusting in partners' benevolence, $t(462) = 2.90$, $p < .01$, and somewhat more trusting in partners' honesty $t(462) = 1.97$, $p < .07$, at the beginning of the study.

Procedure

Data for the original UT-TRAC longitudinal study were collected during a series of nine face-to-face interviews; data collection was organized into three phases. Phase 1 consisted of one long interview during which respondents participated in the following tasks: (a) answering questions about individual characteristics and family background, (b) graphing commitment to marrying partner from the date the relationship began to the present, (c) completing questionnaires about relationship with partner, and (d) completing questionnaires on individual liking for leisure, relationship, and task activities. Phase 2 comprised a total of seven short monthly interviews. During each interview, respondents updated chance of marriage graphs since their last interview and completed different questionnaires about relationships with partners.

Phase 3 was a replication of the procedures used in Phase 1. Respondents were compensated $20 for each completed long interview (Phase 1 and Phase 3) and $5 for each completed interview during Phase 2. Human subjects approval for the research conducted in the original study was obtained on April 29, 1991.

During Phase 1, respondents answered a series of questions on measures designed by the principle investigator regarding demographic information (Appendix A) and relationship background information (Appendix B). From the demographic measure, respondents completed items regarding parents' living arrangements while they were growing up. The respondents who had experienced a parental separation for some reason

also indicated the causes for their parents' separation as divorce, separation, death, or other causes. From the relationship background measure, respondents reported on adult attachment style. Respondents indicated their adult attachment style (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991) by listening to the interviewer read four paragraphs and then selecting the one statement that best described their feelings about getting close to others.

From the relationship background questionnaire, respondents also reported on stage of relationship involvement at every interview they completed. Respondents reported their stage of relationship involvement by listening to the interviewer read a description of statements and circling the response that best described their relationship with their partner (i.e., casually dating, seriously dating, privately committed to marriage, formally engaged, or broken up). Beginning at Phase 2.1, respondents chose from an additional one statement that described being married to their partner (Appendix B).

Respondents completed a measure that assessed how partners handled differences in preferences for activities (Appendix C), which is an adaptation from Caryl Rusbult's accommodation measure (Rusbult et al., 1991), during Phase 2.2. Respondents rated twelve items on a 9-point Likert scale that ranged from 0 (*I never do this*) to 4 (*I sometimes do this*) to 8 (*I constantly do this*) regarding the frequency of the types of responses to situations in which partners have different ideas about how to spend their time.

Respondents completed a measure that was designed to assess the handling, causes, and outcomes of relationship problems (Appendix D), during Phase 2.7 or Phase

3 (n = 100) if they missed the interview at Phase 2.7. Respondents completed both open-ended and Likert scale items. First, respondents were asked to "think about the last time you and your dating partner openly disagreed about something" and then answered three open-ended questions about the last incident they had brought to their mind. Second, respondents rated the intensity of the disagreement or feelings experienced during the incident on a 7-point Likert scale that ranged from 1 (*not at all intense*) to 7 (*extremely intense*). Third, respondents rated how responsible each partner was on a scale that ranged from 1 (*I was totally responsible*) to 4 (W*e were equally responsib*le) to 7 (*My partner was totally responsible*). Fourth, respondents rated "the degree to which different causes were responsible for the problem they had experienced" on 28 items surrounding the causes of problems on a 7-point Likert scale that ranged from 1 (n*ot at all true*) to 4 (n*ot sure*) to 7 (d*efinitely true*). Of these 28 items, the first 12 items involved causes that related to the individual's responsibility for the problem. The next 12 items involved causes that related to the partners' responsibility for the problem. The last four items related to external sources of responsibility for the problem such as family and friends. Finally, respondents rated the degree to which each outcome was true of the incident on 18 items using the same 7-point Likert scale as the causes of problems' items.

Respondents completed items from a measure of trust (Larzelere & Huston, 1980) (Appendix E) during Phase 1 and Phase 3. Respondents rated seven trust items on a 7-point Likert scale that ranged from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 4 (*neither agree nor disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*).

Measurement

Predictor Variables

Secure Attachment Style

Adult attachment style was assessed at Phase 1 from the ratings of the paragraph that best described their relationship to others (Appendix B). One respondent did not complete this item on purpose and was eliminated from the sample. Of the 311 respondents used in the analyses, there are 157 respondents who reported a secure attachment style, 53 respondents who reported a dismissing attachment style, 39 respondents reported a preoccupied attachment style, and 61 respondents reported a fearful attachment style. One male respondent was missing data on this item.

Prior to the analyses, a dichotomous variable labeled *secure attachment style* was created by recoding the original scores on attachment style. Individuals who reported a secure attachment style (n = 157) received a score of 1 and individuals who reported any of the three insecure attachment styles (i.e., dismissing, preoccupied, and fearful) received a score of 0 and, thus, represent the comparison group (n = 153).

Parental Divorce

Parental divorce was assessed from the ratings of one item from the demographic information measure administered at Phase 1 (Appendix A). The item asked respondents to indicate the reasons for parents' not living together either during or after the respondents' childhood. For the sake of simplifying the model, a dichotomous variable labeled *parental divorce* was created by recoding the original scores on these items.

Individuals who reported that their parents divorced (n = 106), at any point, either when they were growing up or beyond childhood, received a score of 1. Individuals whose parents' marriage was intact during their childhood and remained intact at the time of measurement (n = 166) became the comparison group and, thus, received a score of 0. In addition, individuals who reported their parents were separated (n = 16) were included in this comparison group. Two other respondents wrote in responses in the other category regarding reasons for parental separation and also received a score of 0. Also included in the comparison group were the individuals whose mother (n = 4), father (n = 16), or both parents (n = 3) had died. It was determined that parental death and parental separation were more like intact marriage than divorce. The final distribution of the sample of 311 individuals based on the dichotomous parental divorce variable that will be used in the analysis is 106 respondents whose parents divorced prior to the study and 205 respondents in the comparison group.

Accommodation

*A*ccommodation was assessed from the ratings on a measure that examined the frequency of reactions regarding how partners handled differences in preferences for activities (Appendix C). The principle investigator adapted Rusbults's (Rusbult et.al., 1991) original accommodation measure so that the stems of the items clearly reflected a situation of conflicting interest in which partners had different preferences for how to spend their time, instead of a situation in which one partner behaves in a potentially destructive manner. For example, "When I want to do one thing and my partner wants to

do another" and "When my partner and I have different ideas about how to spend our time" are two of the stems used in the adapted measure. The response choices in the accommodation measure were identical to the responses in Rusbult's measure (Rusbult et al., 1991).

A principle axis factoring extraction with a varimax orthogonal rotation was performed on the whole sample (n = 354) for which valid data were available. Of the 103 respondents who did not have accommodation data, 11 respondents had dropped the study, 10 respondents no longer had a dating partner, and 82 respondents skipped the Phase 2.2 interview. Another seven respondents had accommodation data but were dating a new partner, someone other than their original dating partner from Phase 1 and, thus, these respondents were eliminated prior to factor analysis. One respondent skipped two items on purpose and mean substitution was used to eliminate their missing data prior to factor analysis.

The factor analysis was performed in an attempt to create factors that paralleled Rusbult's (Rusbult et al., 1991) conceptual framework of the following four typical responses to situations of conflicting interests: voice (constructive and active), loyalty (constructive and passive), exit (destructive and active), and neglect (destructive and passive). Examination of the scree plot indicated four factors with eigenvalues greater than one that explain 81% of the variance. The factors were labeled Voice, Loyalty, Exit, and Neglect. Based on the rotated factor matrix, items were dropped if they had loadings less than .30 or if they double loaded, that is, they had loadings .30 or greater on more

than one factor (Stevens, 1992). The following item was dropped because it double loaded on both the Neglect factor and the Exit factor, "When I want to do one thing and my partner wants to do another, I ignore the whole thing and try to spend less time with him or her." Thus, the final Neglect factor was composed of only two items; whereas, the other three factors were composed of three items (see Table 1). Coefficient alphas for each factor were in the acceptable ranges; Voice (α = .78), Loyalty (α = .79), Exit (α = .94), and Neglect (α = .89). Factor scores for partners' voice, exit, loyalty, and neglect will be used to test the hypotheses.

Attributions

Attributions were assessed from the ratings on a measure that examined the attributions of responsibility surrounding an open disagreement between partners (Appendix D). This measure was created by the principal investigator in which the attributions items were based on items from two previous studies (Orvis, Kelley, & Butler, 1976; Passer, Kelley, & Michela, 1978). These items assessed responsibility of the problem for individuals, their partners, and other external causes of problems. Only the twelve items that assessed partners' responsibility for the problem, however, were selected for analysis because these items seemed to be aligned most closely with my theory regarding individuals' attributions involve the reasons for partners' behavior.

Of the 319 respondents who completed the questionnaire, 12 respondents were reporting on a second dating partner and one respondent was reporting on a third dating partner. Because the focus of this study is to examine the simultaneous relationships of

what predicts trust in a sample of individuals involved in stable relationships, I only used data from individuals who were still dating their original Phase 1 partner. Thus, the data from these 13 respondents were eliminated prior to the analysis.

Of the 145 respondents who had missing data on attributions, 35 respondents had dropped the study, 42 respondents did not have a dating partner, and 65 respondents had missed this questionnaire. Three respondents skipped the entire questionnaire on purpose because they reported having no conflicts with their dating partner. In addition to the missing data for the entire questionnaire, two respondents skipped one item and one respondent skipped two items on purpose. Mean substitution was used to replace scores for these skipped items.

It was determined that although there appeared to be some evidence for a factor structure among the items, there were a number of problems found across several different types of aggregation methods. Thus, a decision was made to examine the twelve items as one unit. A reliability analysis revealed an acceptable coefficient alpha ($\alpha = .73$). Only one item (i.e., My partner was responsible because of something he/she had to do for the sake of someone other than me) appeared to be lowering the internal consistency, and thus, was dropped resulting in an increased alpha value ($\alpha = .74$). A sum score was created from the remaining eleven items and this sum score was used in testing the hypotheses in all of the path analyses in Mplus.

Outcome Variables: Trust in Partners' Honesty and Benevolence

Trust was measured from the ratings on the Larzelere & Huston (1980) measure of dyadic trust (Appendix E). The scale demonstrated good internal reliability with a coefficient alpha of .86. There were no missing data for this measure at Phase 1. A factor analysis utilizing principal axis factoring extraction was conducted on the ratings (Jacquet & Surra, 2001). The same criteria were used for evaluating the factoring loadings as were used in the factor analysis of the accommodation items (Stevens, 1992). Two factors emerged: trust in a benevolent partner and trust in an honest partner. These factors correspond to the original conceptualization provided by Larzelere & Huston (1980) despite the fact that only one factor emerged from their data.

For all factor analysis variables, factor scores will be used in all analyses. In order to maintain consistency of measurement between time points, the principle investigator used regression to impose the factor structure of trust at Phase 1 onto the factor scores at Phase 3. There were 142 respondents who had incomplete data for the following reasons: 52 respondents had dropped the study; 34 respondents were eliminated by the principal investigator because they were no longer responding to the interviewers phone calls to schedule their next interview; 30 respondents no longer had a current, new, or renewed dating partner; 25 respondents had a new dating partner at Phase 3, and one respondent was missing the entire questionnaire. Another 11 respondents were dating someone other than their original dating partner. Thus, there was complete data on trust from 311 respondents who were still with their original dating partner. The Phase 3 factor scores

for trust in partners' honesty and trust in partners' benevolence will be the dependent variables in the analyses.

Moderator Variables

Stage of Relationship Involvement

Stage of relationship involvement is an individual-level, dichotomous variable created from respondents' rating of the statement that best described the couples' stage of relationship involvement assessed on the relationship background measure (Appendix B) at Phase 3. The six statements referred to the following categories of relationship involvement: casually dating, seriously dating, privately committed to marriage, formally engaged, married, or broken up. Respondents' original scores were recoded such that when a respondent indicated they were casually dating (n = 14), seriously dating (n = 111), or privately committed to marriage (n = 79), they received a score of 1. This group is referred to as the *daters* and represents those respondents who are less involved with their dating partners. If the respondent reported they were either formally engaged (n = 77) or married (n =30), then the respondent received a score of 0. This comparison group is referred to as the *engaged* and represents those respondents who are more involved with their partners. It was determined that an important distinction existed between formal engagement and being privately committed to marriage: formal engagement was more marriage-like such that partners often have mutual plans for a shared future, whereas, being privately committed to marriage was more like the other forms of dating

(i.e., serious and casual) in that without formal plans to marry, a shared vision for the future together may be less likely.

The decision to create this grouping variable based on information gathered at Phase 3 rather than at Phase 1 was based on both practical and theoretical considerations. In practical terms, using the Phase 1 data to divide the sample into groups rendered grossly unequal sizing of the groups. According to Benter and Chou (1987), the accepted guidelines for estimating the numbers of people necessary to test a model varies from five to ten people per parameter estimated. Thus, the guideline for the minimum group size required to conduct a two-group comparison of a fully unconstrained model with 12 parameters ranges from 60 to 120 respondents, depending on whether five or ten respondents per parameter is used. Using the Phase 1 data and separating the formally engaged from the other three groups of daters yielded a dating group consisting of 251 respondents and an engaged group consisting of 60 respondents. Having the barest minimum of respondents in one group is potentially problematic when the data do not behave normally because it means that the estimates may be less reliable than if the number of respondents in the group is larger (Bentler & Chou, 1987). Alternatively, using the Phase 3 data yielded a larger engaged group (n = 107).

A potential concern was considered that using data gathered at the end of the study to determine groups might present a causal ordering problem. It was also determined, however, that because stage of involvement was a grouping variable rather than a predictor variable in the model and the outcome in the model was trust measured at

Phase 3 concurrent to the stage variable, using a variable created from data at Phase 3 did not present a causal ordering problem. Thus, the final distribution of the sample of 311 individuals based on the dichotomous stage of involvement variable created from the Phase 3 data that was used in the analysis for Model 2 was 204 respondents in the dating group versus 107 respondents in the engaged group. Therefore, the sample sizes for the each group indicate that the minimum requirement for group size will be exceeded for testing Model 2, whether or not stage of involvement moderates relationships among the variables in the model. Specifically, I predict that the strength of the association between the distal variables and trust will be greater for the less involved respondents than the more involved respondents (Hypothesis 12).

Developmental Change in Stage of Relationship Involvement

Developmental change in stage of relationship involvement is an individual-level, dichotomous variable created from respondents' ratings of the statements that best described the couple's stage of involvement across two periods of measurement. At Phase 1, respondents chose the one statement from the five statements described previously (i.e., referring to casually dating, seriously dating, privately engaged, publically engaged, or broken up) that best described the relationship in terms of the couple's stage of relationship involvement assessed from a measure of relationship background information (Appendix B). At Phase 3, respondents chose from the same five statements that with the addition of a sixth option, that the respondent and partner were now married. Respondents who reported a different stage of involvement at Phase 3 than

at Phase 1, either advancement in stage or regression in stage, received a score of 1. This group is referred to as the *changers* group and represents those respondents who reported some type of change in stage between the two periods of measurement. Respondents who reported the same stage of involvement at Phase 3 as Phase 1 received a score of 0. This comparison group is referred to as the *stable* group. For testing Model 3, whether or not the relationships among the variables in the model are modified by changes in stage of involvement, there are 136 respondents in the changers group and 175 respondents in the stable group. Although the sample sizes for the two groups are uneven, these sample sizes indicate that by using the more lenient guideline of having five respondents for every parameter estimated in the model, the minimum group size necessary ($n = 65$) to test Model 3 will still be met. Model 3 will test whether or not the relationships among the variables are modified by developmental change in relationship involvement that occurs two periods of measurement. I offer two predictions for how developmental change in involvement might moderate the relationships: (1) that the strength of the association of attributions with trust will be greater for the changers group than for the stable group (Hypothesis 13), and (2) that the strength of the associations from the distal variables to trust will be greater for the stable group than for the changers group (Hypothesis 14).

Gender

Gender refers to the sex of the respondent. At Phase 1, interviewers were asked to circle the gender of the respondent before they began to ask respondents to answer the questions that appear on a measure of demographic information (Appendix A). There are

152 men and 157 women respondents in each group to test Model 4, whether or not the relationships among the variables are modified by gender. I offer two predictions of how gender will moderate the relationships: (1) the strength of the association of attributions with trust will be greater for women than for men (Hypothesis 15), and (2) the strength of the associations of partners' accommodation with trust will be greater for men than for women (Hypothesis 16).

Analysis Plan

The analysis technique I used was a series of path analyses that test an overall model of the development of trust and three multiple group comparisons of this same model. I performed all path analyses using Mplus 4.1 (Muthén & Muthén, 2006). The overall model, labeled as Model 1, examined the direct and indirect effects of individuals' distal and proximal predictors on trust as well as the direct effect of partners' accommodation on trust in partners' benevolence and honesty. Models 2 and Models 3 examined multiple group comparisons between groups that differ on stage of relationship involvement and developmental change in stage of relationship involvement. Model 4 examined gender differences in the model. In all four models, trust in partners' benevolence and trust in partners' honesty was predicted separately because the factor analysis revealed that these constructs represent two distinguishable factors. For clarity, the models that test trust in partners' honesty as the outcome variable were labeled with the letter *a* and the models that use trust in partners' benevolence as the outcome variable were labeled with the letter *b*.

In addition to testing an overall model and three multiple group comparisons, I used these same models to examine changes in trust over time by regressing trust measured at Phase 3 onto trust measured at Phase 1. Although some researchers (e.g., Rogosa, 1995) have argued that measuring changes over time is more accurately done by using growth curve modeling so that the initial level of trust (i.e., the intercept) may be accounted for, assessing residualized trust is still a common practice in the social sciences. This method of measuring change serves as an important first step in assesses whether the set of predictors in the theoretical model account for changes in trust over time.

One important measurement issue regarding the analysis plan involves handling the nonindependence of couple data. In order to address this issue, individuals will be nested within couple by means of the cluster command in order to account for the effect of couple on the hypothesized relationships. To the degree that partners' scores are correlated within couple, nonindependence becomes more problematic. The intraclass correlation is a measure of how much partners' scores are related or similar partners' scores are. For this sample, the intraclass correlation for trust in partners' benevolence at Phase 3 ($\alpha = .40$) was moderate to large, depending on the standard applied, suggesting that the importance of using the cluster command (Raudenbush, 1997). When the cluster command is specified in the syntax, the Mplus program automatically chooses the MLR estimator, or the maximum likelihood estimator with robust standard errors. This

estimator is the best choice because the clustering affects the accuracy of the standard errors and this estimator is able to produce less biased standard errors.

A second measurement issue involves the manner in which missing data was handled for the sample. Using maximum likelihood estimation, the Mplus program uses all of the data that are available and estimates the means and covariance matrices without imputing values for the variables with missing data (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2006). The patterns of missing data for this sample do not appear to be substantial (Acock, 2005). In terms of missing data for the predictors, all of the respondents had data on the distal predictors (i.e., parental divorce and secure attachment) measured at Phase 1 except for one male who was missing the attachment rating. Of the 311 respondents in the sample, 39 respondents (19 men and 20 women), or 13% of the sample, were missing data for the accommodation measure only, 16 respondents (8 men and 8 women), or 5% of the sample, were missing data for the attribution measure only, and two respondents (1 man and 1 woman), or less than 1% of the sample, were missing data for both the accommodation and the attribution measures.

Overall Model

As can be seen in Figure 2, Model 1 represents the overall model in which I examine the direct effects of two sets of variables, partners' active responses, operationalized as the factor scores for voice, exit, loyalty, and neglect, and individuals' attributions, operationalized as the sum score of the attribution items for partners' responsibility. Hypothesis 1 is that partners' voice will be positively associated with

individuals' trust. Hypothesis 2 is that partners' exit will be negatively associated with individuals trust in partners' benevolence and honesty. Hypothesis 3 is that partners' loyalty will be positively associated with individuals trust in partners' benevolence and honesty. Hypothesis 4 is that partners' neglect will be negatively associated with individuals trust in partners' benevolence and honesty. Hypothesis 5 is that individuals' attributions will be directly and negatively associated with trust. In addition, the overall model will examine the direct effects of two background variables (i.e., individuals' secure attachment style and individuals' parental divorce) on trust. Hypothesis 6 is that individuals' secure attachment style will be positively associated with individuals' trust. Hypothesis 7 is that individuals' parental divorce will be negatively associated with individuals' trust in partners' benevolence and honesty.

Another goal of this study is to determine whether or not attributions mediate the relationship between the distal variables and trust. Hypothesis 8 states that individuals' secure attachment style will be negatively associated with attributions. Hypothesis 9 states that individuals' parental divorce will be positively associated with attributions. Hypothesis 10 and Hypothesis 11 state that attributions will partially mediate the direct relationships between the distal variables and trust; secure attachment and trust (i.e., Hypothesis 10) and parental divorce and trust (Hypothesis 11).

Models Testing Moderation

In addition to testing an overall model, three models that compare multiple groups will be tested. In the first multiple-group comparison, (i.e, Model 2), I will compare one

group of less involved individuals, those who reported they were casually dating, seriously dating, or privately committed to marriage (i.e., daters), with a second group of more involved couples, those who reported they were publically engaged or married (i.e., engaged). This model will evaluate whether or not stage of relationship involvement moderates the relationships among the variables. I predict that stage of relationship involvement will moderate the relationships among the variables in the model such that the strength of the associations between the distal variables and trust will be greater for the less involved individuals than the more involved (Hypothesis 12).

In the second multiple-group comparison, (i.e., Model 3), I will compare one group of individuals, those who reported changing stage, by either advancing or regressing in involvement (i.e., changers), with a second group of individuals, those who did not report changing stage of involvement over the course of the nine months (i.e., stable). This model will evaluate whether or not developmental change moderates the relationships among the variables. I offer two hypotheses for moderation by developmental change. First, I predict that developmental change in relationship involvement will moderate the relationships among the variables in the model such that the strength of the association from attributions to trust will be greater for the changers than for the stables (Hypothesis 13). Second, I predict that developmental change in relationship involvement will moderate the relationships among the variables in the model such that the strength of the direct association from the distal variables to trust will be greater for the stables than for the changers (Hypothesis 14).

In the third multiple-group comparison, (i.e., Model 4), I will examine gender differences in the model for men and women. This model will evaluate whether or not gender moderates the relationships among the variables. I offer two hypotheses for moderation by gender. First, I predict that gender will moderate the relationships among the model such that the strength of the association between attributions to trust will be greater for women than for men (Hypothesis 15). Second, I predict that gender will moderate the relationships among the model such that the strength of the associations among the types of partners' accommodation and trust will be stronger for men than for women (Hypothesis 16).

CHAPTER 3: RESULTS

I used path analysis to test an overall theoretical model of the development of trust from a set of predictors involving both individuals' and partners' characteristics. In addition, I used three multiple group comparisons to test hypotheses relating to differences in the strength of the associations between groups for stage of relationship involvement, developmental change in relationship involvement, and gender. Finally, I tested a model examining changes in trust over time in path analysis by regressing trust at Phase 3 onto trust at Phase 1. After controlling for the Phase 1 trust, the predicted outcome is the residualized trust.

Evaluating the Fit of the Models

In the first step of the analyses, two overall models, examining the prediction of trust in partners' honesty and trust in partners' benevolence were tested separately using path analysis in the Mplus 4.1 program (Muthén & Muthén, 2006). The means and standard deviations for the variables in the overall model are shown in Table 3 and the correlations among the variables are shown in Table 4.

In terms of evaluating the fit of the models, I selected four fit indices from several different classes in order to ensure a thorough evaluation of the models. The first index selected, the chi-square test statistic, evaluates whether the population covariation matrix is equal to the covariance matrix implied by the model (Schermelleh-Engel, Moosbrugger, & Müller, 2003). When the *p*-value associated with the chi-square is larger than .05, the test suggests that the model fits the data.

The second index selected, the Comparitive Fit Index, or CFI (Bentler, 1990), is an incremental fit index that assesses the proportion of improvement in fit by comparing the theorized model relative to a null model (Kline, 1998; Hu & Bentler, 1999). The null model is typically one in which all of the observed variables are assumed to be uncorrelated. The CFI ranges from 0.0 to 1.0 with higher values indicating better fit. Acceptable levels for the CFI have traditionally been .90 or higher. Some researchers, however, have suggested raising the cutoff criterion to .95 or .97 so as to reduce the number of misspecified models that are considered acceptable (e.g., Hu & Bentler, 1999).

The third index selected, the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation, or RMSEA (Steiger, 1990; Steiger & Lind, 1980), is an absolute fit index that measures the approximate fit in the population. Values for the RMSEA range from 0.0 to 1.0 with lower values indicating better fit. According to Browne and Cudeck (1993), RMSEA values less than .05 indicate a good or close fit, values between .05 and .08 indicate an adequate fit, values between .08 and .10 a mediocre fit, and values above .10 indicate a poor fit. Other researchers, however, argued that RMSEA values below .06 should be considered acceptable (e.g., Hu & Bentler, 1999).

The fourth index selected, the Standardized Root Mean Square Residual, or SRMR (Bentler, 1995), is an absolute fit index that is the sum of the squared standardized residuals effectively standardizing both the sample and the predicted covariance matrix. Values for the SRMR range from 0.0 to 1.0 with a value of zero indicating perfect fit.

The commonly accepted rule of thumb for this index is that values below .05 indicate a good fit and values below .10 indicate an acceptable fit (Hu & Bentler, 1995).

The decision about which guidelines to follow for evaluating goodness of fit is based, in part, on the goals of the analysis. First, I wanted to get the overall models for trust in partners' honesty and benevolence to indicate a good fit in order to proceed with the multiple group analyses. Second, because I was concerned about examining multiple group comparisons that had never been tested before, I used the guidelines for adequate fit rather than the more stringent guidelines indicating good fit for evaluating the models of multiple groups.

Although Mplus reports the Tucker-Lewis Index (i.e., TLI), also known as the Non-Normed Fit Index (i.e., NNFI), I decided to not use this index of fit because according to Kline (1998), "In small samples, it is also possible for the value of the NNFI to be much lower than those of the other fit indices" (p. 129). Furthermore, the TLI statistic penalizes for model complexity. Because it was unclear whether complexity of the model would result in differences in the multiple group comparisons, I wanted to retain a complex model for exploratory purposes. Thus, given that my model is complex and the sample is relatively small by SEM standards, particularly in some of the multiple group analysis where samples equal about 8 individuals per parameter estimated, I decided that this fit index should not be used for evaluating my models.

Testing the Overall Model for Trust in Partners' Honesty

For the model predicting trust in partners' honesty (i.e., Model 1a), several indicators showed that the model was a poor fit of the data, $X^2(4) = 14.05$, $p < .01$; CFI = .45, RMSEA = .09, RMSR = .03. Inspection of the modification indices suggested two paths that could be added in order to improve the fit and still be consistent with current theory. So that the revised model did not deviate too much from the original theoretical model, I decided to add only one path. Thus, these two paths were added one at a time to the original model and evaluated for goodness of fit in order to decide whether adding either path might result in a good fit. In the first alternative model, an additional path from partners' voice to individuals' attributions was added to the original model (i.e., Model 1a) allowing individuals' attributions of partners' responsibility for conflict to mediate the relationship between partners' voice and individuals' trust in partners' benevolence. The meaning of this path is that part of the effect of partners' behavior on trust is indirect; partners' voice is interpreted through individuals' attributions of partners' responsibility for conflict. Although the chi-square value was nonsignificant in this revised model, the CFI and RMSEA showed that this revised model was either a poor or adequate fit of the data, $X^2(3) = 5.90$, $p = .12$; CFI = .84, RMSEA = .06, RMSR = .03. In a second alternative model, an additional path from partners' exit to individuals' attributions was added to the original model (i.e., Model 1a) allowing individuals' attributions of partners' responsibility for conflict to mediate the relationship between partners' exit and individuals' trust in partners' benevolence. The meaning of this path is

that part of the effect of partners' behavior on trust is indirect, partners' exit is interpreted through individuals' attributions of partners' responsibility for conflict. Although the chi-square value was nonsignificant in this revised model, the CFI and RMSEA showed that this revised model was a poor fit of the data, $X^2(3) = 7.97$, $p = .05$; CFI = .73, RMSEA = .07, RMSR = .03. Thus, the data from both analyses showed that the two alternative revisions of the models failed to produce a model that fit the data well.

Although the modification indices suggested another change in the model, adding a reciprocal path from trust in partners' honesty to attributions, would result in a large parameter change, this modification was inconsistent with the current theory of testing a model of the predictors of trust for two reasons. First, it would have assessed the reciprocal influence of how beliefs of trust predict the types or nature of attributions individuals make, which is outside the scope of this study. Second, this modification would create a causal ordering problem because trust, which is measured at a later time point (i.e., Phase 3), would predict attributions, which are measured one month earlier in the study (in some cases, attributions were measured concurrently with trust at Phase 3). Furthermore, examination of the correlation matrix showed that only partners' exit and attributions were significantly associated with trust in partners' honesty. Thus, because the attempts to add additional paths did not result in an overall model with good fit, the significance of the path coefficients were not interpreted and the multiple group analyses were not conducted on trust in partners' honesty.

Testing the Overall Model for Trust in Partners' Benevolence

For the model predicting trust in partners' benevolence (i.e., Model 1b), the initial analysis indicated that the model did not fit well; $X^2(4) = 13.13$, $p < .01$; CFI = .84, RMSEA = .09, RMSR = .03. Based on the modification indices and theory, a decision was made to add one additional path in order to try to improve the fit of the model. A path from partners' voice to individuals' attributions was added such that individuals' attributions of partners' responsibility would mediate the relationship between partners' voice and individuals' trust in partners' benevolence. Adding this path was consistent with a theoretical argument offered by Gray (2006) such that an individuals' interpretation of partners' behavior is closer in proximity to their beliefs of trust in their partner than their partners' actual behavior. In this way, attributions act as a cognitive filter in which the symbolic meaning of behavior is processed and interpreted.

In the second step of the analyses, the majority of the fit indices of the revised model indicated a good fit to the data; $X^2(3) = 4.68$, $p = .20$; CFI = .97, RMSEA = .04, RMSR = .02. Although researchers usually delete insignificant paths to produce a more parsimonious model, it was not clear whether any of multiple group analyses would reveal significant differences between paths. Thus, the most complex model with nonsignificant paths was retained and used in the multiple group analyses.

Figure 3 shows the path coefficients for the revised model predicting trust in partners' benevolence. The results showed that two of the proximal predictors were significantly related to trust, voice and attributions. As predicted, partners' voice was

significantly and positively associated with trust (Hypothesis 1), such that the more partners reported engaging in voice, the greater was individuals' trust in their partners' benevolence. Voice was also indirectly related to trust. The path added to the model in order to improve the fit showed that partners' voice was significantly and negatively related to attributions. Thus, the more partners reported engaging in voice, the less individuals attributed responsibility for conflict to their partners. As predicted, attributions were significantly and negatively associated with trust (Hypothesis 5), such that the more individuals attributed responsibility for conflict to their partners, the less they trusted in their partners' benevolence.

Although partners' exit was negatively associated with trust (Hypothesis 2), this association was not statistically significant. There was no support for the hypotheses involving partners' loyalty (Hypothesis 3) and neglect (Hypothesis 4), these predictors were not significantly associated with trust.

In terms of the distal predictors, none of the hypothesized relationships reached statistical significance. Secure attachment style, however, was marginally related to trust both directly and indirectly; secure attachment was positively associated with trust (Hypothesis 6) and negatively associated with attributions (Hypothesis 8). This marginal finding suggests there was a trend that, compared to insecurely attached individuals, securely attached individuals were somewhat more trusting of their partners and somewhat less likely to attribute responsibility for conflict to their partners. There was no support for the hypotheses involving parental divorce; parental divorce was not

significantly associated with trust either directly (Hypothesis 7) nor was it significantly related to trust indirectly via attributions (Hypothesis 9). The analyses also showed that attributions were not a significant mediator of trust for the distal variables. Thus, there was no support for Hypothesis 10 or Hypothesis 11.

Testing Multiple Group Comparisons

The next step in the analyses was to test the hypotheses that the predictors of trust differ for dating versus engaged individuals, individuals who changed stage versus individuals who stayed in the same stage (i.e., changers vs. stable), and men verus women. Three multiple group comparisons were conducted examining hypothesized differences in the strength of the coefficients among the groups based on stage of relationship involvement, developmental change in relationship involvement, and gender. The means and standard deviations for the variables in all of the multiple group comparisons are shown in Table 5.

In order to test each hypothesis, the first step in each multiple group analysis was to estimate a model that allowed all of the path coefficients to vary freely between the two groups. The second step was to analyze a separate model for each hypothesized path in which the hypothesized path was constrained to be equal in order to test if the path coefficient differed significantly between the two groups.

The third step was to compare the difference in the chi-square values between the free-to-vary model and the nested, more parsimonious model with the hypothesized constrained path using a chi-square table. Usually, a simple difference between the two

chi-square values would be used (Byrne, Shavelson, & Muthén, 1989; Vandenberg & Lance, 2000). The use of the cluster command for couples that corrects for the nonindependence of coupled partners' data, however, requires the application of a scaling correction to the chi-square value. Therfore, the difference between two scaled chi-squares of nested models is not distributed as chi-square (Satorra, 2000; Chi-Square Difference Testing Using the Satorra-Bentler Scaled Chi-Square, n.d.).

Satorra and Bentler (2001) offered a simple calculation that allows the for a chi-square difference test for nested models to be used with the scaled chi-square. The difference test scaling correction is computed as

$$cd = [(d_0 \times c_0) - (d_1 \times c_1)] / (d_0 - d_1)$$

where

d_0 is the degrees of freedom in the nested model,

d_1 is the degrees of freedom in the comparison model,

c_0 is the scaling correction factor for the nested model,

d_1 is the degrees of freedom in the comparison model,

c_1 is the scaling correction factor for the nested model.

The Satorra-Bentler scaled chi-square difference test is computed as

$$SCS_{DT} = [(tr_0 \times c_0) - (tr_1 \times c_1)] / cd$$

where

tr_0 is the scaled chi-square value for the nested model,

tr_1 is the scaled chi-square value for the comparison model,

c_0 is the scaling correction factor for the nested model,

c_1 is the scaling correction factor for the nested model,

cd is the value computed from the difference test scaling correction.

The value obtained from the Satorra-Bentler scaled chi-square difference test is then used as a difference score. If the difference between the chi-square values obtained from each model exceeds the critical value on a chi-square table for the change in the number of degrees of freedom between the models, in this case one degree of freedom, the interpretation is that constraining this path coefficient significantly worsens the fit of the model and, therefore, the parsimony gained from imposing this constraint is not worth what is lost in terms of fit (Byrne, Shavelson, & Muthén, 1989; Vandenberg & Lance, 2000). Thus, it is concluded that this particular coefficient differs significantly between the two groups and should be allowed to vary freely in the final model.

Once each hypothesis is tested by imposing the constraints, a final model is estimated. In the final model, I will constrain to be equal all of the path coefficients that were not hypothesized to be different between groups as well as any of the hypothesized, but nondiffering, path coefficients. Applying these constraints creates a more parsimonious model, one in which the data from both groups is pooled across the nondiffering coefficients, and this model is evaluated for fit. The final model should be a good fit to the data, or not fit significantly worse than the less parsimonious model in the

first step in which all the parameters were free to vary (Byrne, Shavelson, & Muthén, 1989).

Testing Differences for Stage of Relationship Involvement

I predicted that stage of relationship involvement will moderate the relationships among the variables in the model such that the strength of the direct and indirect associations between the distal variables (i.e., parental divorce and secure attachment style) and trust will be greater for the dating individuals than for the engaged individuals (Hypothesis 12). The correlations among the variables in the stage of relationship involvement model can be found in Table 6 for the daters and Table 7 for the engaged.

In the first step, the model allowing each parameter to vary freely between the two groups showed an adequate fit to the data; $X^2(6) = 9.60$, $p = .14$; CFI = .94, RMSEA = .06, RMSR = .03. For dater individuals ($n = 204$), secure attachment and attributions were significant predictors of trust. Securely attached daters were more trusting of partners than insecurely attached daters. Attributions were negatively associated with trust indicating that the more daters attributed responsibility for conflict to their partners, the less individuals trusted in their partners' benevolence. The predictors in the model explained 18% of the variance in trust and 3% of the variance in attributions for daters.

For engaged individuals ($n = 107$), partners' neglect and attributions were significantly and negatively associated with trust such that the more partners' reported acting in neglectful ways and the more individuals attributed responsibility for conflict to their partners, the less individuals trusted in partners' benevolence. Partners' voice was a

significant predictor of trust and attributions. Voice was positively associated with trust and negatively associated with attributions, revealing that the more partners reported calmly discussing and talking with their partners, the more individuals trusted in partners' benevolence and the less they attributed responsibility for conflict to their partners. The predictors in the model explained 24% of the variance in trust and 8% of the variance in attributions for the engaged group.

In the second step, the hypothesis that the strength of the direct and indirect associations between the distal variables and trust would be greater for the daters than for the engaged was tested (Hypothesis 12). The path coefficients from each of the distal variables to trust and attributions were constrained one by one and evaluated using the scaled chi-square difference test described previously. The results revealed no significant differences in the four path coefficients between the groups of daters and engaged, indicating that the model of the development of trust was not modified by stage of relationship involvement (see Table 12). There was, however, one marginal effect: the strength of the direct association between secure attachment and trust was somewhat greater for the daters than for the engaged group. For daters, but not for engaged, the securely attached respondents were somewhat more trusting in their partners' benevolence than respondents who were insecurely attached.

To test that the final model was a good fit to the data, a model (see Figure 4), in which all of the parameters were constrained, was estimated. Results showed that the all-constrained model fit the data well; $X^2(16) = 22.33$, $p = .13$; CFI = .90, RMSEA = .05,

RMSR = .04. Furthermore, the scaled chi-square difference test described previously revealed that this model did not fit significantly worse than the all-free-to-vary model (see Table 12).

Testing Differences for Developmental Change in Stage of Involvement

The second multiple group analyses examined whether or not developmental change in stage of relationship involvement moderated the relationships among the variables in the model. Two hypotheses were tested for this group comparison (i.e., changers vs. stables). First, I predicted that the strength of the association between attributions and trust would be greater for the changers than for the stables (Hypothesis 13). Second, I predicted that the strength of the associations between the distal variables and trust would be greater for the stables than for the changers (Hypothesis 14). The correlations among the variables in the developmental change model can be found in Table 8 for the changers and Table 9 for the stables.

In the first step, the model allowing each parameter to vary freely between the two groups showed an excellent fit to the data; $X^2(6) = 6.65$, $p = .35$; CFI = .99, RMSEA = .03, RMSR = .02. For changers (n = 136), individuals' attributions were significantly and negatively associated with trust such that the more individuals attributed responsibility for conflict to their partners, the less they trusted them. Partners' voice was significantly and positively associated with attributions such that the more partners' reported calmly discussing and talking to their partner, the less individuals held their

partners responsible for conflict. The predictors in the model explained 19% of the variance in trust and 8% of the variance in attributions for changers.

For the stable (n = 175) group, both partners' voice and individuals' attributions were significantly associated with trust. Partners' voice was positively associated with trust such that the more partners' reported calmly talking, the more individuals trusted them. Attributions were negatively associated with trust such that the more individuals attributed responsibility for conflict to their partners, the less individuals trusted in their partners' benevolence. The predictors in the model explained 22% of the variance in trust and 3% of the variance in attributions for the stable group.

In the second step, the hypothesis that the strength of the association between attributions and trust would vary for the changers and stable groups was tested by constraining the path coefficient from attributions to trust and conducting a path analysis for the nested model (Hypothesis 13). The results revealed that constraining this path did not significantly worsen the fit. Thus, the paths were assumed to be invariant across groups of changers and stable respondents and there was no evidence to support Hypothesis 13 (see Table 12).

Next, the hypothesis that the strength of the association between the distal predictors and trust would differ between groups (Hypothesis 14) was tested by constraining separately the path coefficients from the two distal variables (i.e., secure attachment style and parental divorce) to trust and conducting path analyses for the two nested models. The results revealed no significant differences in the two path coefficients

between the groups of changers and stables, indicating that the relationships between the distal variables and trust were not modified by developmental change in relationship involvement (see Table 12). There was, however, one marginal effect but the results were in the opposite direction of the prediction: the strength of the association between parental divorce and trust was somewhat greater for the changers than for the stables indicating that, for individuals who changed stage of involvement over the course of the study, being from a family in which their parents divorced meant that they trusted somewhat less in their partners' benevolence.

Because the evidence showed that the model of the development of trust was not significantly modified by developmental change in involvement, a final model in which all of the path coefficients were constrained was estimated. The data showed a good fit to the model; $X^2(16) = 20.452$, $p = .20$; CFI = .93, RMSEA = .04, RMSR = .04 (see Figure 5). Furthermore, a scaled chi-square difference test described previously revealed that this all-constrained model did not fit significantly worse than the all-free-to-vary model (see Table 12).

Testing Differences for Gender

The third multiple group analyses examined whether or not gender moderated the relationships among the variables in the model. Two hypotheses were tested in this group comparison. I predicted that the strength of the association between attributions and trust would be greater for women than for men (Hypothesis 15). I also predicted that the strength of the association between partners' accommodation (i.e., exit, voice, neglect,

and loyalty) and trust would be greater for men than for women (Hypothesis 16). The correlations among the variables in the gender model can be found in Table 10 for the men and Table 11 for the women.

In the first step, the model that allowed each path coefficient to vary freely between the two groups showed a borerline fit to the data; $X^2(6) = 12.27$, $p = .06$, CFI = .90, RMSEA = .08, RMSR = .03. For men (n = 152), individuals' attributions were significantly and negatively associated with trust such that the more men attributed responsibility for conflict to their partners, the less they trusted in their partners' benevolence. Partners' voice was significantly and negatively associated with attributions such that the more women reported engaging in voice, the less men attributed responsibility for conflict to women. The predictors in the model explained 12% of the variance in trust and 6% of the variance in attributions for men.

For women (n = 159), partners' voice and individuals' attributions were significantly associated with trust. Partners' voice was positively associated with trust indicating that the more men used voice, the more women trusted in their partners' benevolence. Attributions were negatively associated with trust such that the more women attributed responsibility for conflict to their male partners, the less they trusted in their partners' benevolence. The predictors in the model explained 29% of the variance in trust and 3% of the variance in attributions for women.

In the second step, the hypothesis that the strength of the association between attributions and trust would differ between men and women (Hypothesis 15) was tested

by constraining the path coefficient from attributions to trust to be equal across men and women. A test of this nested model was conducted. The results revealed a marginal effect consistent with Hypothesis 15 such that the strength of the association between attributions and trust was somewhat greater for women than for men. Thus, compared to men, women who attributed more responsibility for conflict to their partners were somewhat less trusting in their male partners' benevolence.

Next, the hypothesis that the strength of the association between partners' accommodation and trust would be greater for men than for women (Hypothesis 16) was tested by constraining the path coefficients from each partners' measure of accommodation to trust one at a time, and then conducting separate path analyses for each of the nested models. The results were evaluated using the scaled chi-square difference test described previously. The results revealed no significant differences in the four path coefficients between men and women, indicating that the relationships between the type of partners' accommodation and trust in the model of the development of trust were not significantly modified by gender. There was, however, one marginal effect but the data were in the opposite direction of the prediction for Hypothesis 16: the strength of the association from partners' voice to trust was somewhat stronger for women than for men indicating that when men reported engaging in more voice, women were somewhat more trusting in their male partners' benevolence.

Due to the fact that the model of the development of trust was not significantly modified by gender, a final model in which all path coefficients were constrained was

estimated. This model, however, did not fit the data well, $X^2(16) = 27.69$, $p < .05$; CFI = .81, RMSEA = .07, RMSR = .05. According to Byrne, Shavelson, and Muthén (1989), the final model should either fit well or not fit significantly worse than the less parsimonious model. Although these researchers argue that in some cases, it is better to have a more parsimonious model and sacrifice a little fit, this model fit too poorly to be accepted. Thus, a decision was made to release the constraints for the two marginal differences, such that the path coefficient from attributions to trust and the path coefficient from partners' voice to trust were free to vary between men and women. This model was tested and fit the data well, $X^2(14) = 19.89$, $p = .13$; CFI = .90, RMSEA = .05, RMSR = .04 (see Table 12, Figure 6).

Examining Changes in Trust

The revised model of trust in partners' benevolence used in the analyses was used to examine changes in trust over time. The revised model was modified slightly such that a path from trust at Phase 1 to trust at Phase 3 was included prior to conducting the path analyses. Only the model predicting changes in trust in partners' benevolence was examined because the overall model for trust in partners' honesty did not fit. The data showed that the model for changes in trust in partners' benevolence, $X^2(4) = 19.51$, $p < .001$; CFI = .88, RMSEA = .11, RMSR = .04, did not fit adequately enough to interpret the results. Because the purpose of this analysis was to keep the model consistent across all of the analyses, no modifications of this model were made in order to make it fit.

CHAPTER 4: DISCUSSION

According to the theory offered by John Holmes and his colleagues (Holmes, 1991; Holmes & Rempel, 1989), the basis of trust comes from individuals' watching their partners' behavior in situations of conflicting interests and making attributions for the underlying causes of partners' behavior. When individuals see their partners make transformations on their behalf during situations of conflicting interests, and then attribute the reasons for their partners' behavior as benevolent and honest, they develop trust in their partners. When individuals see partners make choices that are self-interested, they may make negative attributions about the motives for the behavior they witness. In this case, individuals fail to develop trust in their partners. Based on this theory of building trust, I tested a model in which two proximal predictors, partners' behavior and the attributions individuals make for partners' behavior in situations of conflicting interests, were hypothesized to be directly related to trust, in positive and negative ways.

Two distal predictors, secure attachment style and parental divorce, are also thought to influence trust. In this model, I examined hypotheses that involve both direct and indirect associations between the distal variables and trust. I also tested hypotheses involving how the relationships among the variables in the model might be modified by stage of relationship involvement, developmental change in relationship involvement, and gender.

The analyses testing my model of trust examined two outcomes separately: trust in partners' benevolence and trust in partners' honesty. The results reveal that the data fit

the model for trust in partners' benevolence well enough for the importance of the predictors to be interpreted, but did not fit the model for trust in partners' honesty. The findings show that in the overall model of trust in partners' benevolence, partners' voice and individuals' attributions, were significant predictors of trust (see Figure 3). The findings for the multiple group comparisons further reveal that the model of trust is not significantly modified by stage of relationship involvement, developmental change in relationship involvement, or gender. A few marginal findings, however, suggest areas for future research to explore.

Partners' Accommodation Behavior

In my model of the development of trust, I predicted that partners' accommodation behavior would be directly related to individuals' trust, such that the constructive responses of partners' voice and loyalty would be positively associated with trust (Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 3, respectively) and that the destructive responses of partners' exit and neglect would be negatively associated with trust (Hypothesis 2 and Hypothesis 4, respectively). The results showed that one type of accommodation behavior, partners' voice, predicted trust: The measure of voice came from Rusbult's typology of responses to situations in which partners behaved badly (Rusbult & Zembrodt, 1983; Rusbult, Zembrodt, & Gunn, 1982; Rusbult et al., 1991).

As expected, partners' voice is significantly and positively associated with individuals' trust in partners' benevolence (Hypothesis 1). The more partners' report

behaving in ways consistent with calmly discussing their different preferences for activities, the more individuals trust in their partners' benevolence.

I offer three speculative reasons for the finding that partners' voice is positively associated with individuals' trust in partners' benevolence. One reason lies in the connection between direct forms of communication and positive relationship outcomes. Instead of using a direct form of communication, partners in romantic relationships sometimes purposely avoid topics involving threatening issues because they believe that discussing these topics directly may jeopardize the well-being of their relationships (Knobloch & Carpenter-Thuene, 2004). Contrary to this belief, however, some research has found that talking about events in the relationship that produce uncertainty is associated with more positive relationships outcomes than avoiding talking about the event (Planalp & Honeycutt, 1985; Planalp, Rutherford, & Honeycutt, 1988).

In the current study, respondents were asked how they respond when they have different ideas about how to spend time together. Talking about differences in preferences for activity participation may produce relationship uncertainty because dissimilarities between partners are a potentially threatening issue. Partners may demonstrate by means of voice, or calmly discussing differences in preferences for activity participation, that they care enough about individuals' welfare that they are willing and able to take the risks necessary to communicate directly about threatening issues. According to the definition of trust presented in the beginning of this study, in order for individuals to trust their partners, they need to have expectations that partners'

behavior will be responsive to individuals' needs in the future. Individuals' observations of partners' responsiveness demonstrated by using voice allow individuals to more easily assume that partners will be responsive again in future situations of conflicting interests. In demonstrating their responsiveness and care through their use of direct communication, partners may promote the building of individuals' trust in partners' benevolence.

The second reason for the positive association between partners' voice and individuals' trust is that the nature or quality of the interaction, or how constructive the response is during situations of conflicting interests, matters in the development of trust. This constructive nature of the voice response to handle a threatening issue may serve to prevent negative escalation. Negative escalation refers to the spiraling effect in which one partner acts negatively and the other reciprocates with an even more harmful or damaging behavior, and so on until the conflict episode has spun out of control (Gottman, 1994). Research on married couples shows that couples who are happily married are more likely to use a variety of constructive techniques including humor and physical touch to either prevent or break the chain of negativity (Gottman, 1994). Furthermore, when partners' *calmly* discuss their differences together, it signals that they care about each other and are responsive to each others' needs.

Data from the factor analysis of the accommodation items in this study support the idea that the quality of the response matters more than just communicating directly about a threatening issue. The two items involving the response, "I calmly discuss things

with my partner" load higher on the Voice factor than the third item, "I talk to him or her about what to do" (see Table 1).

The third reason for the positive association between partners' voice and individuals' trust involves a reciprocal interpretation of the data. Voice may operate in a bidirectional manner, as both a predictor of trust and a reflection of trust. Research shows that individuals are more likely to use a direct form of communication in order to reduce uncertainty when they believe that the outcome will be positive and that their communications will be effective, whereas individuals are more likely to avoid the issue when they expect negative outcomes (Afifi, Dillow, & Morse, 2004). Once a high level of trust is established and partners already believe that others have their best interests at heart, then using voice becomes easier because it occurs within a context in which partners expect positive outcomes. A cyclical relationship may exist between voice and trust over time: the more partners use voice in situations of conflicting interests, the more individuals develop trust in them and the greater the trust that develops between partners, the more partners will use voice in future situations of conflicting interests.

Some evidence suggests that in the sample for this study, individuals may have already established beliefs of trust. One piece of evidence comes from the attrition analysis that shows that those respondents included in my sample were more trusting of their partners at the start of the study than those respondents who were excluded from my sample. A second piece of evidence involves the depth of involvement of individuals report with their partner at the onset of the study. At Phase 1, individuals in this study

were more likely to be seriously dating their partners (n = 138), privately committed to marriage (n = 97), or formally engaged (n = 60), than casually dating their partners (n = 16). My sample of couples, most of who had already transitioned to more serious involvement, may not have captured the development of trust. Rather, trust may have already been established between partners. Future research should tease out the developmental timing of relationships or whether and when partners' voice first operates as a predictor to build trust and then when it begins to operate as a reflection of trust.

Contrary to predictions, partners' reports of exit, loyalty, and neglect are not significant predictors of individuals' trust in their partners' benevolence. Using Rusbult's typology of responses, the lack of the findings for loyalty and neglect are more easily explained than for exit. Because loyalty and neglect represent the passive dimension of both constructive and destructive responses, they may go unnoticed. For example, individuals may not notice that their partners "give them the benefit of the doubt and forget about it" (i.e., loyalty) or "sulk and try to avoid them for awhile" (i.e., neglect). These behaviors may be more difficult to perceive or make sense of than the active responses associated with voice that involve noticeable behaviors such as talking calmly together. Some evidence suggests that partners' loyalty is particularly hard to perceive and is often misinterpreted by individuals (Drigotas, Whitney, & Rusbult, 1995).

Although initially it was less clear why exit was not significantly associated with trust, given that this response represents an *active destructive* response according to Rusbult's typology, more careful examination of the wording of the exit items suggested

a plausible explanation. The lack of finding for exit may be rooted in the measurement difference between the measure of accommodation used for this study and the other types of exit items that Rusbult and her colleagues have used in their studies (Rusbult et al., 1991; Rusbult & Zembrodt, 1983; Rusbult, Zembrodt, & Gunn, 1982). We used three exit items to measure exit, and they referred to responses that involve the partner either "thinking about breaking up" or "beginning to think about ending our relationship." In contrast, some of Rusbult's other exit items involve partners threatening to leave the relationship, actually exiting the room in the middle of a heated discussion, or saying abusive things to the partner. For example, in a series of six studies, researchers provided an example of an exit item used in Study 1 and Study 2 is, "I'd tell X to go take a hike and quit being such a creep (Rusbult et. al., 1991, p. 59). Because the full set of exit items were not published with Rusbult's articles, it is impossible to compare my exit items with theirs.

In the present study, the exit items offered to the respondents may have represented more unobservable behaviors and more subtle forms of exit. Calling someone a name, leaving the room, or threatening to end the relationship may be more noticeable to others than the unspoken thought about ending a relationship. Furthermore, the importance of noticeability is based on the fact that this study examines a partner effect rather than an actor effect: it uses partners' report of accommodation to predict individuals' outcomes instead of individuals' report of their own accommodation to predict outcomes. In terms of the partner effect, partners' exit needs to be noticable to

individuals in order to for it to be predictive of individuals' outcomes. In terms of the actor effect, however, individuals' own exit response can be more passive such as thinking about ending a relationship and this more passive version of exit may be just as important to or predictive of their own outcomes as the more noticeable active exit items involving threatening the relationship. Future research should test more directly individuals' interpretation of active versus passive items.

This measurement issue points to a potential limitation of the current study. We have a measure of individuals' reports and partners' reports of accommodation whereas what might have been better for the current study is a measure of individuals' perception of partners' accommodation. Even though partners' report of their behavior has been shown to be correlated with individuals' perceptions of partner's behavior (for examples, see Rusbult et al., 1991 and Caughlin & Golish, 2002), I argued elsewhere that individuals' perceptions of partners' behavior are closer in proximity to trust than partners' report of their own behavior (Gray, 2006). That is, it may matter more how individuals perceive what their partners do than what the partners actually do or report doing. Future research should address ways to measure the development of trust from multiple reporters in order to determine if there are conditions in which one type of source of information is more or less predictive of trust.

Does the Development of Trust Vary by Gender?

Based on the literature on the importance of activities for men, I hypothesized that gender would moderate the association between partners' accommodation (i.e., exit,

voice, neglect, and loyalty) and trust, such that the strength of the associations would be greater for men than for women (Hypothesis 16). The findings from the multiple group comparisons show that gender does not moderate the association between partners' accommodation (i.e., exit, voice, neglect, and loyalty) and trust. One marginal finding, however, in which the findings are opposite of the prediction, reveals that the connection between partners' voice and trust is somewhat stronger for women than for men. This finding indicates that when men report engaging in more voice, women may be more trusting in their male partners' benevolence.

Although marginally significant, this finding suggests directions for future work. Despite the fact that the marginal result is contrary to the hypothesis, it is consistent with some of the literature on gender differences that women place more value than men on talking and discussing the relationship (for example, Acitelli, 1992). Perhaps for women, having partners' calmly discuss differences is a clearer sign of responsiveness than it is for men. The key to this possible gender difference may lie in either a direct approach to handling disagreements or the constructiveness of the voice response. Future investigation should address further whether or not partners' voice differs in importance for men and women.

Because the hypothesis that men's trust would be more strongly tied to partners' behavior than women's trust was unsupported, this suggests the need for alterative explanations. One alternative hypothesis is that for men, the value may be in the actual sharing of an enjoyable activity together. Men's trust may depend little on how the

differences about activity participation are handled, only that men get to engage in the activity. Some data from a dating sample show that for men, the more men engage in preferred activities with their female partners, the more satisfied they are. For women, the more they participated in activities, the greater was the similarity of coupled partner preferences, and the lower was the conflict, the more satisfied they were (Surra & Longstreth, 1990). Although this study examined satisfaction and not trust, the findings might apply to trust such that the more men engage in activities they enjoy with their partners, they more they trust them.

The Direct Role of Attributions in Predicting Trust

The findings show that there is strong support for the hypothesis that attributions of partners' responsibility for conflict are significantly and negatively related to trust (Hypothesis 5). The more individuals attribute responsibility for conflict to their partners, the less they trust in their partners' benevolence.

Despite evidence from other studies (Holmes, 1991, Miller & Rempel, 2004; Rempel, Ross, & Holmes, 2001) suggesting that some types of attributions would be positively associated with trust and other types of attributions of would be negatively associated, in the current study, all of the attributions of partners' responsibility from our measure are negatively associated with trust (see Table 13). The idea that there will be types of attributions is rooted in the research on married couples in which those individuals who are more satisfied are more likely to make relationship-enhancing attributions (for a review, see Bradbury & Fincham, 1990). Relationship-enhancing

attributions include explanations for positive events to partners' stable and internal characteristics (e.g., personality) and explanations for negative events to partners' temporary characteristics (e.g., mood) or external reasons. Spouses who are less satisfied, however, are more likely to make distress-maintaining attributions. Distress-maintaining attributions include explanations for positive events to partners' temporary characteristics and explanations for negative events to partners' more stable and internal characteristics. Holmes, Rempel, and colleagues applied this same idea to the study of trust (Holmes, 1991; Holmes & Rempel, 1986; Miller & Rempel, 2004; Rempel, Ross, & Holmes, 2001). Across several studies, their findings are consistent with this idea: high trust couples made more relationship-enhancing attributions and fewer distress-maintaining attributions.

The fact that all of the attributions of partners' responsibility for conflict in our measure, even those that appeared to be more benign or relationship-enhancing (e.g., My partner was responsible because he/she thought his behavior was in my best interest), are negatively associated with trust is rather curious. One interpretation of these results is that attributing responsibility to the partner for the conflict was synonymous with blaming the partner. The more individuals see their partners as responsible for the conflict, the more they blame their partner for the disagreement. One explanation for the differences found in this study and others may lie in the types of samples used. The majority of the studies showing a distinction between distress-maintaining and relationship-enhancement attributions have used married samples (for an exception, see Fletcher, Fincham, Cramer,

& Heron, 1987). Thus, no research has examined whether daters make distinctions among attributions of responsibility. It may be that daters do not attribute reasons of partners' responsibility for conflict as benign because for them, trust lies in the bigger relationship issues, such as infidelity and betrayal. In contrast to daters, married individuals have more experience with understanding and interpreting their partners' behavior and as a result, married individuals might be able to make more refined distinctions for the meaning of partners' behavior. Future research should use samples of daters at various stages of involvement to identify more benevolent attributions that are positively associated with trust.

There is some evidence that attributions were more strongly connected to trust for women than for men (Hypothesis 15). A marginal finding suggested that for women, the strength of the association between attributions and trust was somewhat greater than the strength of the association for men. In addition, the model seemed to work better for women in that the set of predictors explained more variance in trust for women than for men, 29% versus 12%, respectively. Future research should further examine whether there is a gender differences in the role of attributions in predicting trust.

Distal Predictors of Trust: Secure Attachment Style and Parental Divorce

In my model, secure attachment style and parental divorce are thought of as distal predictors of trust because they represent factors that lie outside of the evaluative process of building trust by watching partners' behave and attributing reasons for their behavior. A litany of studies have established both the positive association between secure

attachment style and trust and the negative association between parental divorce and offspring's trust in romantic partners. Based on these findings, I predicted that secure attachment style and parental divorce would be directly associated with trust, positively and negatively, respectively.

The findings from the overall model reveal that parental divorce and secure attachment style are not significantly associated with trust. Consistent with Hypothesis 7, however, secure attachment style is marginally and positively associated with trust, suggesting that compared to individuals who are insecurely attached, individuals who are securely attached are somewhat more trusting in their partners' benevolence.

The data show that the direction of the coefficient between parental divorce and trust is consistent with Hypothesis 6 but that this association is nonsignificant. One plausible explanation for the lack of significance might be that a gender difference is masking the direct effect of parental divorce on trust. Another sample of individuals drawn from the same UT-TRAC study found that for women, but not men, being from a divorced family is associated with lower trust scores (Jacquet & Surra, 2001). The zero-order correlations shown in Table 10 and Table 11 support this gender difference in my sample: there is a somewhat stronger association for parental divorce with women's trust, $r = -.15$, $p < .07$, than for men's trust, $r = -.04$, $p > .10$. The model tested has twelve parameters to estimate so it was impossible to conduct a four-group multiple group analysis separating women and men from divorced and intact families because of

insufficient sample sizes. Future research should explore this possible gender difference using larger samples.

A marginal finding suggests that another plausible reason for the lack of significance for parental divorce on trust in the general model may be related to the fact that the association between parental divorce and trust is stronger among a more unstable sample. The strength of the negative association between parental divorce and trust is somewhat stronger for the group of individuals who change stage in their relationship involvement than for the group of individuals who remain stable in their involvement over the course of the study. It may be that those who are unsure of where their relationships stand are particularly vulnerable to the deleterious effects of experiencing parental divorce. Future studies should examine this hypothesis with larger samples and across more types of relationship development or change.

Do Attributions Serve as a Mediator?

I found no support for the predictions that attributions are significantly associated with attachment style (Hypothesis 8) and parental divorce (Hypothesis 9), nor for the hypotheses that attributions would partially mediate the association between the distal variables and trust (Hypothesis 10 and Hypothesis 11).

Consistent with Hypothesis 8, however, a marginal effect shows that secure attachment style was negatively associated with attributions such that compared to insecurely attached individuals, securely attached individuals were somewhat less likely to attribute responsibility for conflict to their partners. Taken together, the marginal

effects from both the direct and indirect effects of secure attachment style on trust suggest that there is a consistent, but small effect for secure attachment style on trust.

Although it was not predicted in the original model, the modification indices for the path analyses suggested that attributions would mediate the relationship between partners' voice and individuals' trust in partners' benevolence. The data show that the more partners' report engaging in voice, the less individuals attributed responsibility for conflict to their partners. This finding supports the idea that both partners' behavior and the interpretation of partners' behavior make important but separate contributions to the prediction of trust. The modification indices also suggested that attributions would mediate the relationship between partners' exit and individuals' trust in partners' benevolence. However, in the interest of retaining and testing a model most similar to the proposed theoretical model, only the path from partners' voice to attributions was added. Future research should explore whether attributions simultaneously mediate the associations among individuals' trust and all of the accommodation responses, including partners' exit, loyalty and neglect.

Developmental Variations in Trust

I hypothesized that stage of relationship involvement would moderate the relationships among the variables in the model such that the strength of the associations between the distal variables and trust would be greater for the less involved individuals than the more involved (Hypothesis 12). I also hypothesized that developmental change in relationship involvement would moderate the relationships among the variables in the

model such that the strength of the associations between the distal variables and trust would be greater for the stables than for the changers (Hypothesis 14).

One marginal effect, consistent with Hypothesis 12, shows that the positive influence of secure attachment on trust is significant for the daters but not for the engaged, with the strength of the association being marginally significantly different between the two groups. Although this marginal effect should be interpreted with caution, it shows that for dating individuals but not for engaged individuals, secure attachment is related to more trust in partners' benevolence than insecure attachment. Given that the attrition analysis revealed that the respondents included in my sample were more likely to be securely attached than the respondents who were excluded from the analyses, the effect of secure attachment style on trust in my study may be attenuated than in the general public because my sample represents a group of stable couples. Future studies should examine this model with either samples of casual daters or even samples of singles in order to study the earliest beliefs of trust before patterns of interaction are established.

Belief in Partners' Honesty

It is intriguing that the results were not a good fit for the model of trust in partners' honesty. I offer a few speculative explanations. One explanation for why the model did not fit is that the theory about what predicts the development of trust in partners' honesty is incorrect in any number of ways. For example, the theory assumes that beliefs of trust in partners' honesty and benevolence develop simultaneously;

however, trust in an honest partner might precede the development of trust in a benevolent partner. In order for individuals to believe that others have their best interests at heart, they may need to believe first that their partners are being sincere and truthful in their actions and that their partners are not trying to manipulate them. Thus, trust in partners' honesty may operate as a distal predictor of trust in partners' benevolence.

Another way that the theory may be incorrect is that these two types of trust may have a hierarchical relationship to each other. Trust in partners' honesty may be at a lower level of abstraction than trust in partners' benevolence. Trust in partners' honesty may relate more to one's assessment of the partner's character, almost regardless of the fact that this person is one's dating partner. For example, individuals may believe that their partner is "perfectly honest and truthful" and "truly sincere in his/her promises" with them because individuals have determined that their partner is the kind of person who is honest, truthful, and sincere by nature. Individuals may also believe that partners with this character approach all of their relationships with this kind of honesty. Trust in partners' benevolence, in contrast, may relate more to individuals' beliefs about how their partner will act towards them specifically in the future as dating partners.

One implication of this alternative theory positing a hierarchical relationship could be that important predictor variables were not included in the model that relate more to the development of trust in partners' honesty. For example, partners' conscientiousness instead of their accommodation behavior may inform individuals more of the type of character their partners are allowing them to more easily develop trust in

partners' honesty. Partners' exit may be more strongly correlated with trust in partners' honesty than benevolence. Future research might examine whether beliefs in partners honesty develop form a set of predictors that differ from those that foster belief in partners' benevolence.

Limitations and Future Directions

Although I have integrated the limitations of the study and directions for future research throughout, I have two additional limitations that are worth addressing. One limitation is that the measurement of trust into two distinct components was problematic because there was some conceptual overlap between the factors. The factor analysis results showed that one item in particular (i.e., My partner is truly sincere in his/her promises.), loaded similarly on both factors of trust. Improving the measurement of trust seems like a reasonable first step toward modeling predictors of trust in partners' honesty.

A second limitation of the study is that predicting changes in trust was problematic because attributions were measured once and trust was measured twice, and true change in any variable is best assessed with using more than two time points (Rogosa, 1995). In addition, applying growth curve modeling techniques to multiple data points is a superior method to assessing change, compared to assessing residualized variance between two scores, in that it allows researchers to account for the initial levels of predictors. It is important to note that the purpose of the original UT-TRAC study, however, was designed to examine the development of commitment rather than the development of trust over time, so this limitation relates to using the available data for

secondary data analysis. In order to better assess how attributions and changes in attributions might be related to changes in trust, future studies should assess attributions and trust at multiple time points across a study period, particularly with at least three points of measurement. Furthermore, allowing for a longer period between times of measurement may capture greater change in trust.

Another reason to further investigate the relationships among attributions, trust, and changes over time is that, as far as I am aware, there are no data that examine the relationships among these variables that use dating samples. A recent study of married couples and long-term cohabitors (i.e., living together for more than two years) showed that attributions and trust operated in a reciprocal model with bidirectional processes: Individuals' attributions influence varying levels of trust and varying levels of trust influence attributions (Miller & Rempel, 2004). It is not clear, however, whether the relationships among attributions, trust, and changes in these variables will show the same patterns for daters. Future studies should assess both trust and attributions with samples of daters, particularly casual daters, or singles to further examine the role attributions play in the development of trust and the reciprocal effect of trust on attributions.

Table 1

Eigenvalues, Factor Loadings, and Alphas of Phase 2.2 Accommodation Scale

	Eigenvalues and rotated factor loadings from varimax rotation			
Scale items	Exit $\alpha = .94$	Loyalty $\alpha = .79$	Voice $\alpha = .78$	Neglect $\alpha = .89$
When my partner and I have different ideas about how to spend our time, I think about breaking up.	**.932**	-.023	-.071	.099
When my partner wants to do one thing and I want to do something else, I think about breaking up.	**.904**	-.004	-.077	.125
When I want to do one thing and my partner wants to do another, I begin to think about ending our relationship.	**.895**	-.018	-.081	.110
	$\lambda = 3.46$			
When my partner and I have different ideas about how to spend our time, I give my partner the benefit of the doubt and forget about it.	-.010	**.920**	.059	.033

Table 1 continues

Table 1 continued

Scale items	Eigenvalues and rotated factor loadings from varimax rotation			
	Exit $\alpha = .94$	Loyalty $\alpha = .79$	Voice $\alpha = .78$	Neglect $\alpha = .89$
When my partner wants to do one thing and I want to do something else, I give my partner the benefit of the doubt and forget about it.	.000	**.905**	.000	-.026
When I want to do one thing and my partner wants to do another, I am loyal and quietly wait for things to change.	-.021	**.467**	-.083	.136
		$\lambda = 2.26$		
When my partners wants to do one thing and I want to do something else, I calmly discuss things with my partner.	-.103	.055	**.901**	-.184
When my partner and I have different ideas about how to spend our time, I calmly discuss things with my partner.	-.092	.019	**.748**	-.293

Table 1 continues

Table 1 continued

Scale items	Eigenvalues and rotated factor loadings from varimax rotation			
	Exit α = .94	Loyalty α = .79	Voice α = .78	Neglect α = .89
When I want to do one thing and my partner wants to do another, I talk to him or her about what to do.	-.025	-.086	**.544** λ = 1.95	-.005
When my partner wants to do one thing and I want to do something else, I sulk and try to avoid my partner for awhile.	.191	.123	-.186	**.871**
When my partner and I have different ideas about how to spend our time, I sulk and try to avoid my partner for awhile.	.113	.077	-.193	**.852** λ = 1.20

Note. $N = 354$.

Table 2

Eigenvalues and Factor Loadings of Phase 1 Dyadic Trust Scale

	Eigenvalues and rotated factor loadings from varimax rotation	
Scale items	Belief in an honest partner	Belief in a benevolent partner
I feel that I can trust my partner.	**.85411**	.15894
There are times when my partner cannot be trusted.	**.73169**	.29983
My partner is perfectly honest and truthful with me.	**.68303**	.26185
My partner is truly sincere in his/her promises.	**.40699**	.36970
	$\lambda = 1.422$	
I feel that my partner does not show me enough consideration.	.14690	**.75059**
My partner is primarily interested in his/her own welfare.	.15581	**.62836**
My partner treats me fairly and justly.	.23049	**.54757**
I feel that my partner can be counted on to help me.	.14786	**.30570**
		$\lambda = 1.306$

Note. $N = 464$.

The original source for the factor analyses is Jacquet, S. E. (1999). Sexual abuse experiences and family environment in childhood as predictors of sexual dysfunction and premarital relationships in adulthood. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Texas – Austin.

Table 3

Means and Standard Deviations for the Variables in the Overall Model Predicting Trust in Partners' Honesty and Benevolence

Variable	*M*	*SD*
1. Parental divorce	.34	.48
2. Secure attachment	.51	.50
3. Exit	-.10	.81
4. Voice	.00	.96
5. Loyalty	.03	.89
6. Neglect	-.07	.91
7. Attributions of Partners' Responsibility	37.00	10.99
8. Trust in Partners' Honesty	.00	.88
9. Trust in Partners' Benevolence	.01	.81

Note. N = 311. Parental divorce and secure attachment are dichotomously coded such that 1=parental divorce and 1=securely attached.

Table 4

Intercorrelations Among Variables in the Overall Model (N = 311)

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Parental divorce	–								
2. Secure attachment	-.04[f]	–							
3. Exit	.01[c]	-.06[b]	–						
4. Voice	-.06[c]*	-.07[b]	.00[c]	–					
5. Loyalty	.04[c]	.03[b]	.02[c]	-.06[c]	–				
6. Neglect	.08[c]	-.06[b]	-.09[c]	.01[c]	.03[c]	–			
7. Attributions	-.01[e]	.11[d]	.12[a]†	-.17[a]**	.06[a]	.02[a]	–		
8. Trust in partners' honesty	-.05[g]	.09[f]*	-.16[c]**	.00[c]	-.01[c]	-.04[c]	-.14[e]*	–	
9. Trust in partners' benevolence	-.10[g]†	.07[f]	-.14[c]*	.21[c]***	-.09[c]	-.06[c]	-.34[e]***	.21[g]***	–

Note. Subscripts indicate sample sizes for each cell.

[a]$n = 254$. [b]$n = 269$. [c]$n = 270$. [d]$n = 292$. [e]$n = 293$. [f]$n = 310$. [g]$n = 311$.

†$p < .10$. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 5

Means and Standard Deviations for the Variables in the Stage of Involvement, Developmental Change in Involvement, and Gender Models in Predicting Trust in Partners' Honesty and Benevolence

	Stage of Involvement				Developmental Change				Gender			
	Daters $n = 204$		Engaged $n = 107$		Changers $n = 136$		Stable $n = 175$		Men $n = 152$		Women $n = 159$	
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
1. Parental divorce	.35	.48	.33	.47	.28	.45	.28	.45	.32	.47	.36	.48
2. Secure attachment	.49	.50	.54	.50	.53	.50	.53	.50	.56	.50	.46	.50
3. Exit	-.06	.81	-.20	.79	-.12	.92	-.12	.92	-.29	.64	.06	.91
4. Voice	-.02	.90	.06	.87	-.03	.84	-.03	.84	-.11	.95	-.05	.82
5. Loyalty	.06	.98	-.06	.91	-.02	.99	-.02	.99	.07	.89	.14	1.01
6. Neglect	-.16	.85	.08	.98	-.05	.99	-.05	.99	-.01	.94	-.14	.87
7. Attributions of Partners' Resp.	36.99	11.10	36.88	10.83	37.44	11.16	37.44	11.16	37.58	11.28	36.36	10.71
8. Trust in Partners' Honesty	-.10	.98	.19	.63	-.06	1.01	.04	.78	.03	.82	-.03	.95
9. Trust in Partners' Benevolence	-.07	.83	.16	.77	.09	.82	.09	.82	.09	.72	-.06	.89

Table 6

Intercorrelations Among Variables for Daters in the Stage of Involvement Model (n = 204)

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Parental divorce	–								
2. Secure attachment	-.03[f]	–							
3. Exit	-.02[c]	.00[b]	–						
4. Voice	-.01[c]*	-.11[b]	-.01[c]	–					
5. Loyalty	.04[c]	.05[b]	.02[c]	-.08[c]	–				
6. Neglect	.10[c]	-.05[b]	-.08[c]	.02[c]	.01[c]	–			
7. Attributions	-.01[e]	.12[d]	.17[a]*	-.13[a]	.05[a]	.11[a]	–		
8. Trust in partners' honesty	-.06[g]	.15[f]*	-.17[d]*	.02[c]	.07[c]	-.07[c]	-.22[e]***	–	
9. Trust in partners' benevolence	-.06[g]	.11[f]	-.18[c]*	.17[c]*	-.05[c]	.02[c]	-.35[e]***	.20[g]***	–

Note. Subscripts indicate sample sizes for each cell.

[a]n = 159. [b]n = 170. [c]n = 171. [d]n = 189. [e]n = 190. [f]n = 203. [g]n = 204.

†$p < .10$. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Table 7

Intercorrelations Among Variables for Engaged in the Stage of Involvement Model (n = 107)

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Parental divorce	–								
2. Secure attachment	-.04[d]	–							
3. Exit	.08[b]	-.17[b]	–						
4. Voice	-.13[b]	.00[b]	.03[b]	–					
5. Loyalty	.03[b]	-.01[b]	.02[b]	-.01[b]	–				
6. Neglect	.06[b]	-.08[b]	-.08[b]	-.02[b]	.08[b]	–			
7. Attributions	.00[c]	.11[c]	.05[a]	-.25[a]*	.08[a]	-.12[a]	–		
8. Trust in partners' honesty	.00[d]	-.09[d]	-.11[b]	-.08[b]	-.18[b]	-.05[b]	.08[c]	–	
9. Trust in partners' benevolence	-.20[d]*	-.03[d]	-.04[b]	.29[b]**	-.15[b]	-.21[b]*	-.31[c]**	.16[d]	–

Note. Subscripts indicate sample sizes for each cell.

[a]$n = 95$. [b]$n = 99$. [c]$n = 103$. [d]$n = 107$.

†$p < .10$. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Table 8

Intercorrelations Among Variables for Changers in the Developmental Change Model (n = 136)

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Parental divorce	–								
2. Secure attachment	-.04[d]	–							
3. Exit	.07[b]	-.15[b]	–						
4. Voice	-.20[b]*	.06[b]	.03[b]	–					
5. Loyalty	-.01[b]	.00[b]	.03[b]	-.01[b]	–				
6. Neglect	.01[b]	-.01[b]	-.17[b]†	.07[b]	.03[b]	–			
7. Attributions	.11[c]	.15[c]†	.11[a]	-.19[a]*	-.01[a]	.06[a]	–		
8. Trust in partners' honesty	-.13[d]	.13[d]	-.14[b]	.02[b]	-.07[b]	-.05[b]	-.17[c]†	–	
9. Trust in partners' benevolence	-.25[d]**	.17[d]*	-.15[b]	.13[b]	-.12[b]	-.14[b]	-.26[c]**	.35[d]***	–

Note. Subscripts indicate sample sizes for each cell.

[a]$n = 104$. [b]$n = 114$. [c]$n = 125$. [d]$n = 136$.

†$p < .10$. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Table 9

Intercorrelations Among Variables for Stable in the Developmental Change Model (n = 175)

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Parental divorce	–								
2. Secure attachment	-.03[f]	–							
3. Exit	.03[c]	.03[b]	–						
4. Voice	.02[c]	-.15[b]†	-.03[c]	–					
5. Loyalty	.06[c]	.05[b]	.02[c]	.10[c]	–				
6. Neglect	.14[c]	.10[b]	.01[c]	.08[c]	.03[c]	–			
7. Attributions	-.08[e]	.08[d]	.14[a]†	-.16[a]†	.12[a]	-.01[a]	–		
8. Trust in partners' honesty	.01[g]	.07[f]	-.18[c]*	-.02[b]	.05[c]	-.04[c]	-.11[e]	–	
9. Trust in partners' benevolence	.02	-.02[f]	-.14[c]	.23[b]***	-.06[c]	.00[c]	-.41[e]***	.08[g]	–

Note. Subscripts indicate sample sizes for each cell.

[a]$n = 150$. [b]$n = 155$. [c]$n = 156$. [d]$n = 168$ [e]$n = 174$. [f]$n = 175$.

†$p < .10$. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Table 10

Intercorrelations Among Variables for Men in the Gender Model (n = 152)

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Parental divorce	–								
2. Secure attachment	.08[f]	–							
3. Exit	.04[c]	-.01[b]	–						
4. Voice	-.11[c]	-.09[b]	.09[c]	–					
5. Loyalty	-.01[c]	.08[b]	-.06[c]	-.08[c]	–				
6. Neglect	.04[c]	-.04[b]	-.11[c]	.05[c]	.04[c]	–			
7. Attributions	.03[e]	.14[d]†	.11[a]	-.21[a]*	.22[a]*	.01[a]	–		
8. Trust in partners' honesty	-.04[g]	.05[f]	-.14[c]	-.08[c]	-.01[c]	-.19[c]*	-.22[e]**	–	
9. Trust in partners' benevolence	-.04[g]	.04[f]	-.19[c]*	.12[c]	-.05[c]	.05[c]	-.29[e]***	.11[g]	–

Note. Subscripts indicate sample sizes for each cell.

[a]$n = 124$. [b]$n = 131$. [c]$n = 132$. [d]$n = 142$. [e]$n = 143$. [f]$n = 151$. [g]$n = 152$.

†$p < .10$. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Table 11

Intercorrelations Among Variables for Women in the Gender Model (n = 159)

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Parental divorce	–								
2. Secure attachment	-.14[d]†	–							
3. Exit	.01[b]	-.08[b]	–						
4. Voice	.01[b]	-.05[b]	-.04[b]	–					
5. Loyalty	.06[b]	.00[b]	.03[b]	-.02[b]	–				
6. Neglect	.13[b]	-.09[b]	-.06[b]	-.04[b]	.04[b]	–			
7. Attributions	-.04[c]	.08[c]	.15[a]†	-.14[a]	-.08[a]	.03[c]	–		
8. Trust in partners' honesty	-.05[d]	.13[d]	-.18[b]*	.07[b]	-.01[b]	.08[b]	-.08[c]	–	
9. Trust in partners' benevolence	-.15[d]†	.08[d]	-.09[b]	.30[b]***	-.10[b]	-.16[b]†	-.39[c]***	.27[d]**	–

Note. Subscripts indicate sample sizes for each cell.

[a]$n = 130$. [b]$n = 138$. [c]$n = 150$. [d]$n = 159$.

†$p < .10$. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Table 12

Scaled Chi-Square Test for Nested Models for Hypothesized Differences in Stage of Involvement, Developmental Change in Involvement, and Gender

Model	Scaled X^2	df	cf[a]	ΔX^{2b}	Δdf
Stage of Involvement					
All-free-to-vary	9.60	6	1.01	–	–
Constrain secure attachment – trust	13.00	7	1.00	3.52†	1
Constrain parental divorce – trust	10.33	7	0.99	.61	1
Constrain secure attachment – attributions	9.64	7	1.00	.01	1
Constrain parental divorce – attributions	9.64	7	1.01	.02	1
Final all-constrained	22.34	16	0.98	12.68	10
Developmental Change in Involvement					
All-free-to-vary	6.65	6	0.96	–	–
Constrain attributions – trust	8.27	7	0.98	1.57	1
Constrain secure attachment – trust	7.87	7	1.00	1.20	1
Constrain parental divorce – trust	9.92	7	.93	3.78†	1
Final all-constrained	20.45	16	1.00	13.75	10

Table 12 continues

Table 12 continued

Model	Scaled X^2	df	cf[a]	ΔX^{2b}	Δdf
Gender					
All-free-to-vary	12.27	6	1.00	–	–
Constrain attributions – trust	15.77	7	0.99	3.66†	1
Constrain voice – trust	15.24	7	1.03	2.85†	1
Constrain exit – trust	12.39	7	1.14	0.92	1
Constrain loyalty – trust	13.18	7	1.04	1.11	1
Constrain neglect – trust	14.23	7	1.05	1.98	1
Final all-constrained	27.69	16	1.07	15.60	10
Final voice and attributions unconstrained	19.89	14	1.07	8.02	8

Note. A change in one degree of freedom is significant when the change in the X^2 value is equal to or exceeds 3.84.

[a]The correction factor for the scaled X^2. [b]The ΔX^2 value is obtained from applying a simple calculation that adjusts for the correction factor (Sarrota & Bentler, 2001).

†$p < .10$. *$p < .05$.

Table 13

Intercorrelations Among the Items for Attributions of Partners' Responsibility for Conflict and Trust (n = 293)

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Physical condition	–												
2. Personality	.24***	–											
3. Behavior in my best interest	.03	.14*	–										
4. Asked me to behave	.07	.17**	.28***	–									
5. Bad feelings toward me	.24***	.30***	.06	.23***	–								
6. Relationship doubts	.14*	.21***	.07	.13*	.57***	–							
7. Mood	.39***	.29***	-.05	.09	.33***	.19**	–						
8. Likes and dislikes	.21***	.38***	.14*	.14*	.28***	.22***	.29***	–					
9. Change my behavior	.12*	.17**	.28***	.28***	.36***	.31***	.21***	.34***	–				
10. Avoid hurting/offending me	.09	.09	.28***	.24***	.13*	.17**	.03	.02	.07	–			
11. Get something straight	.02	.08	.25***	.09	.24***	.32***	.05	.15*	.49***	.16**	–		
12. Trust in partners' honesty	-.04	-.03	-.01	-.07	-.18**	-.24***	-.08	-.10	-.03	-.01	-.02	–	
13. Trust in partners' benev.	-.10†	-.23***	-.05	-.23***	-.40***	-.32***	-.13*	-.23***	-.19**	-.04	-.06	.21***	–

Note. †$p < .10$. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Figure 1. A Theoretical Model of the Development of Trust

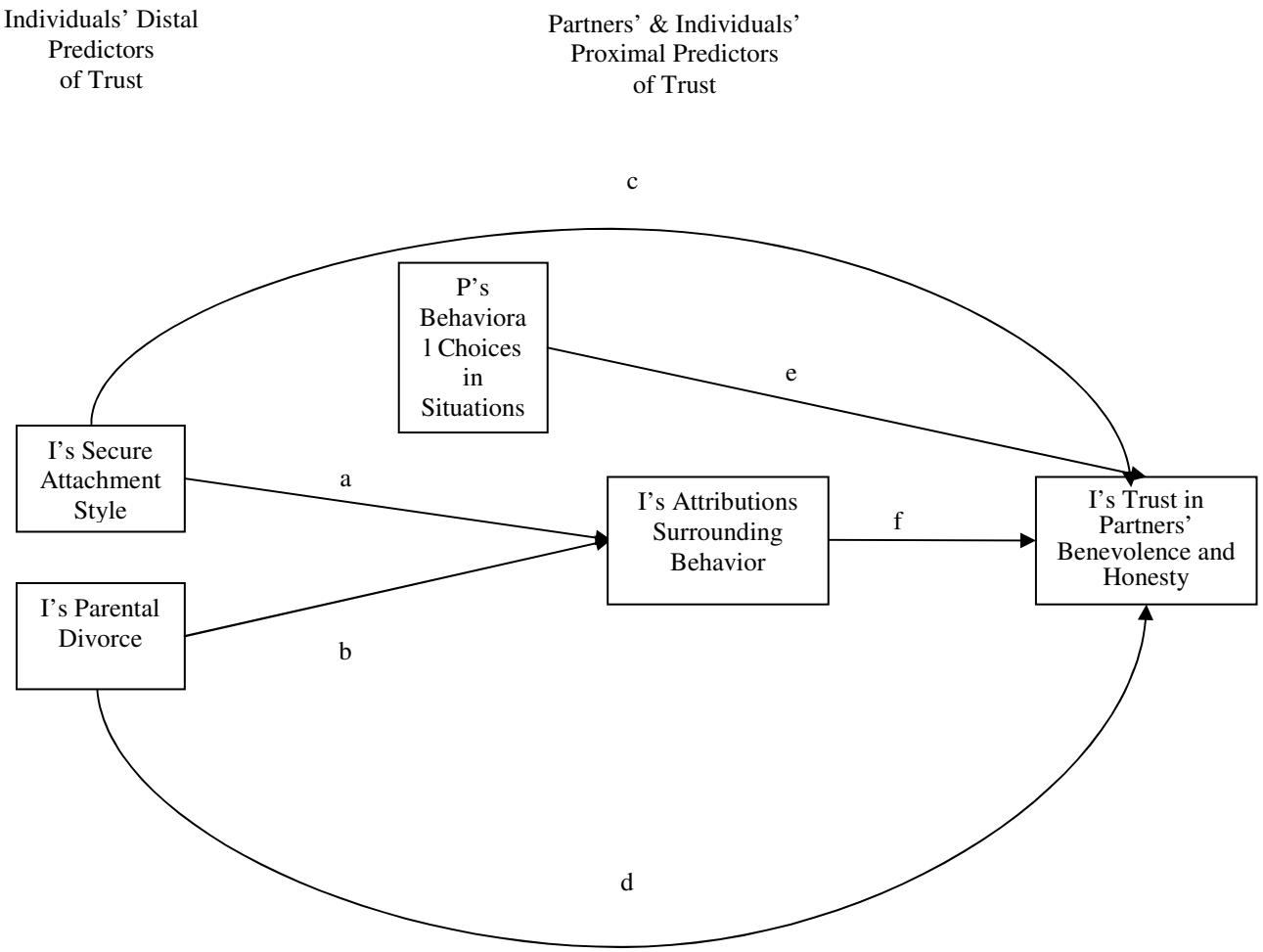


Figure 2. Model 1: The Hypothesized Models of the Development of Trust in Partners' Honesty or Benevolence

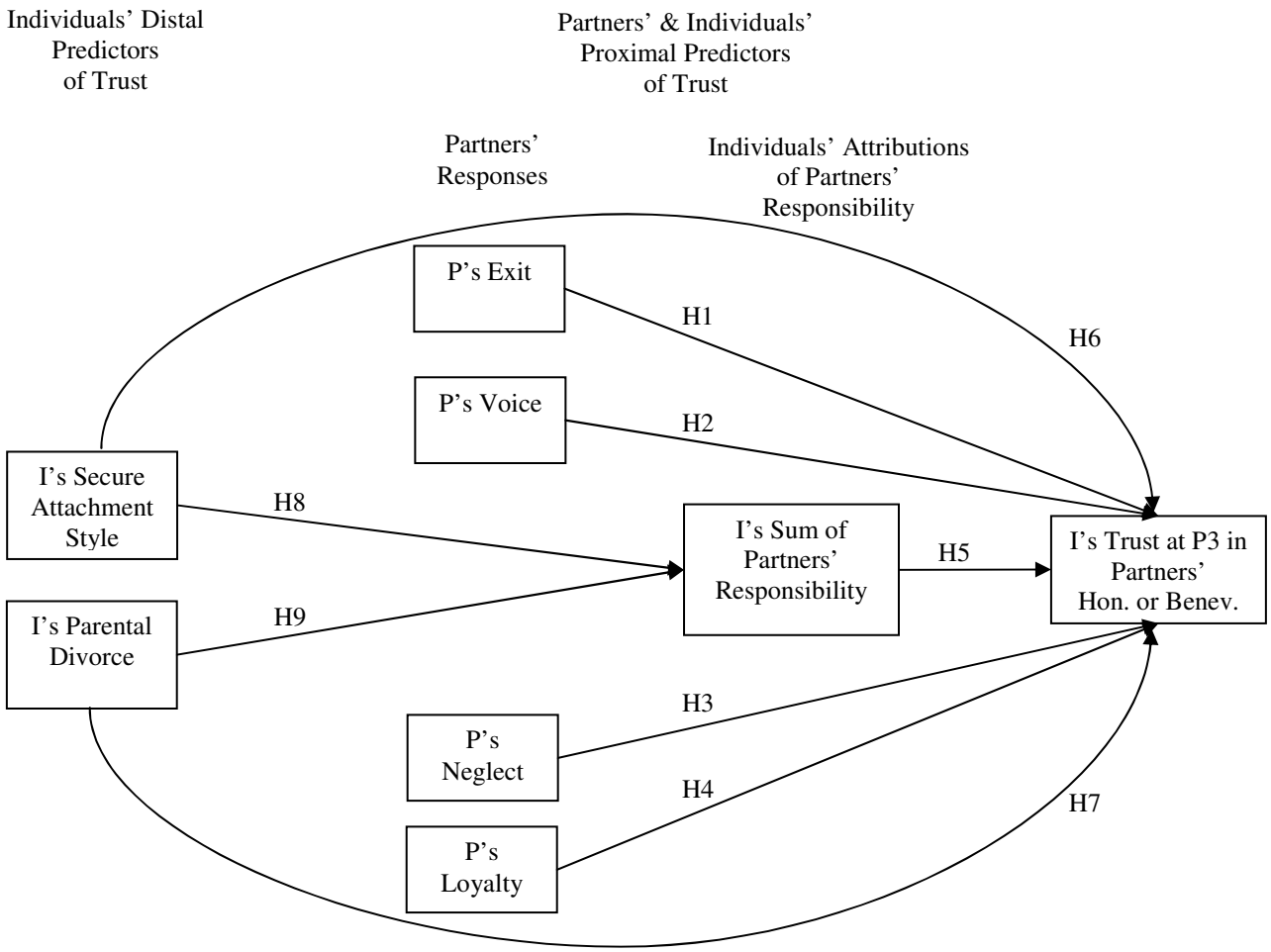
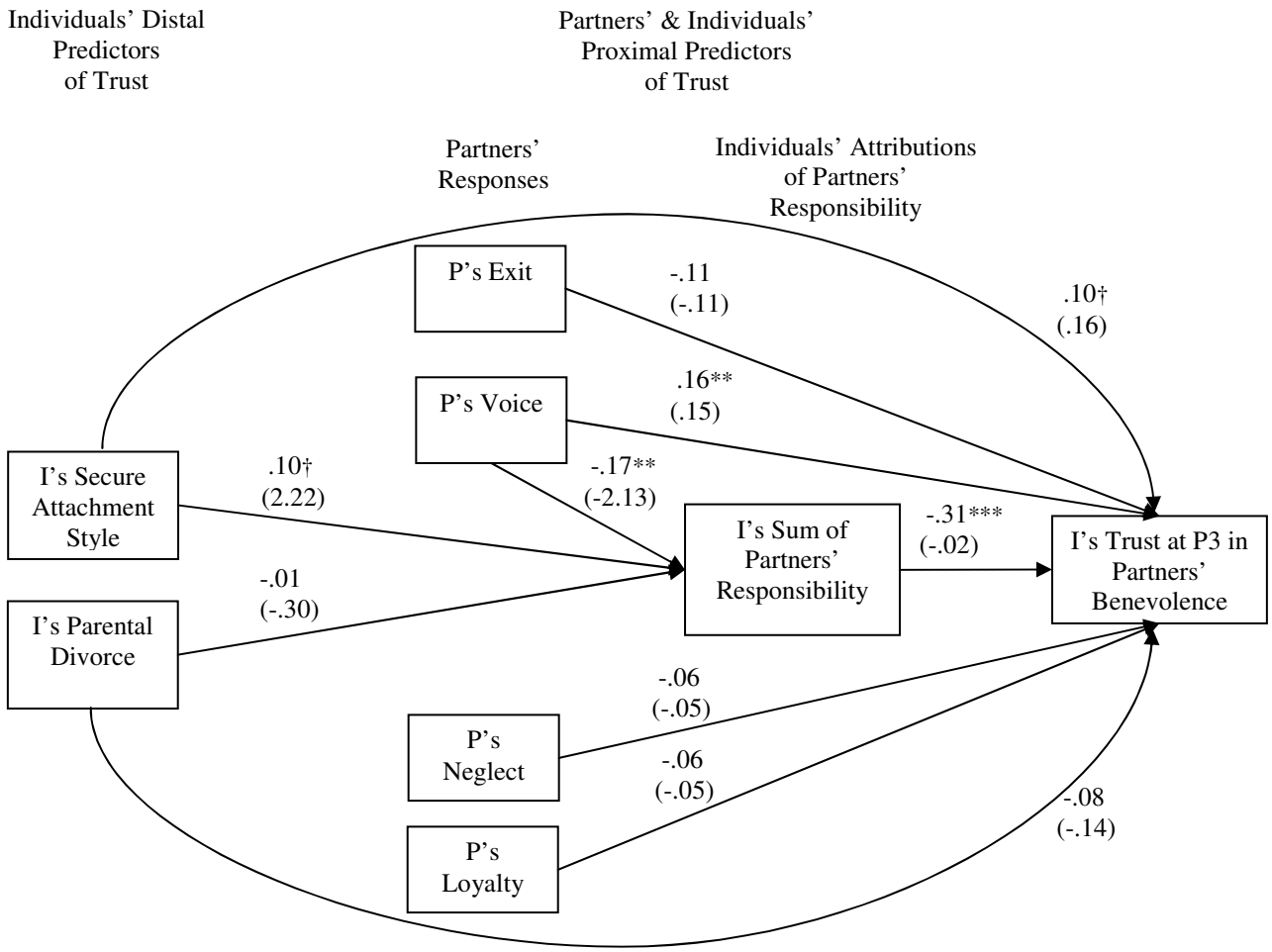


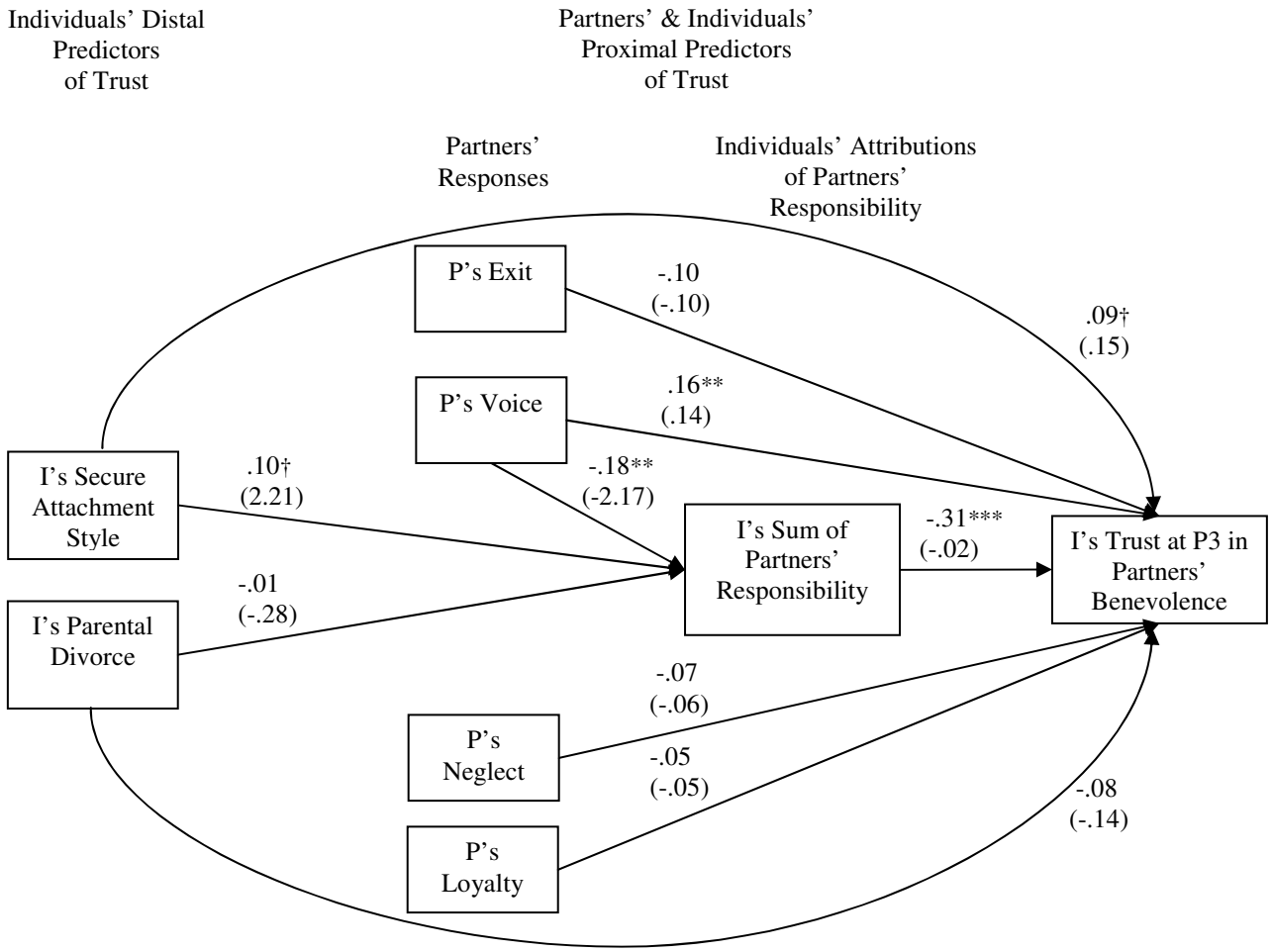
Figure 3. Model 1b: The Overall Model of the Development of Trust in Partners' Benevolence



Note. $N = 311$. †$p < .10$. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Both unstandardized and standardized coefficients are shown; Unstandardized coefficients are in parentheses.

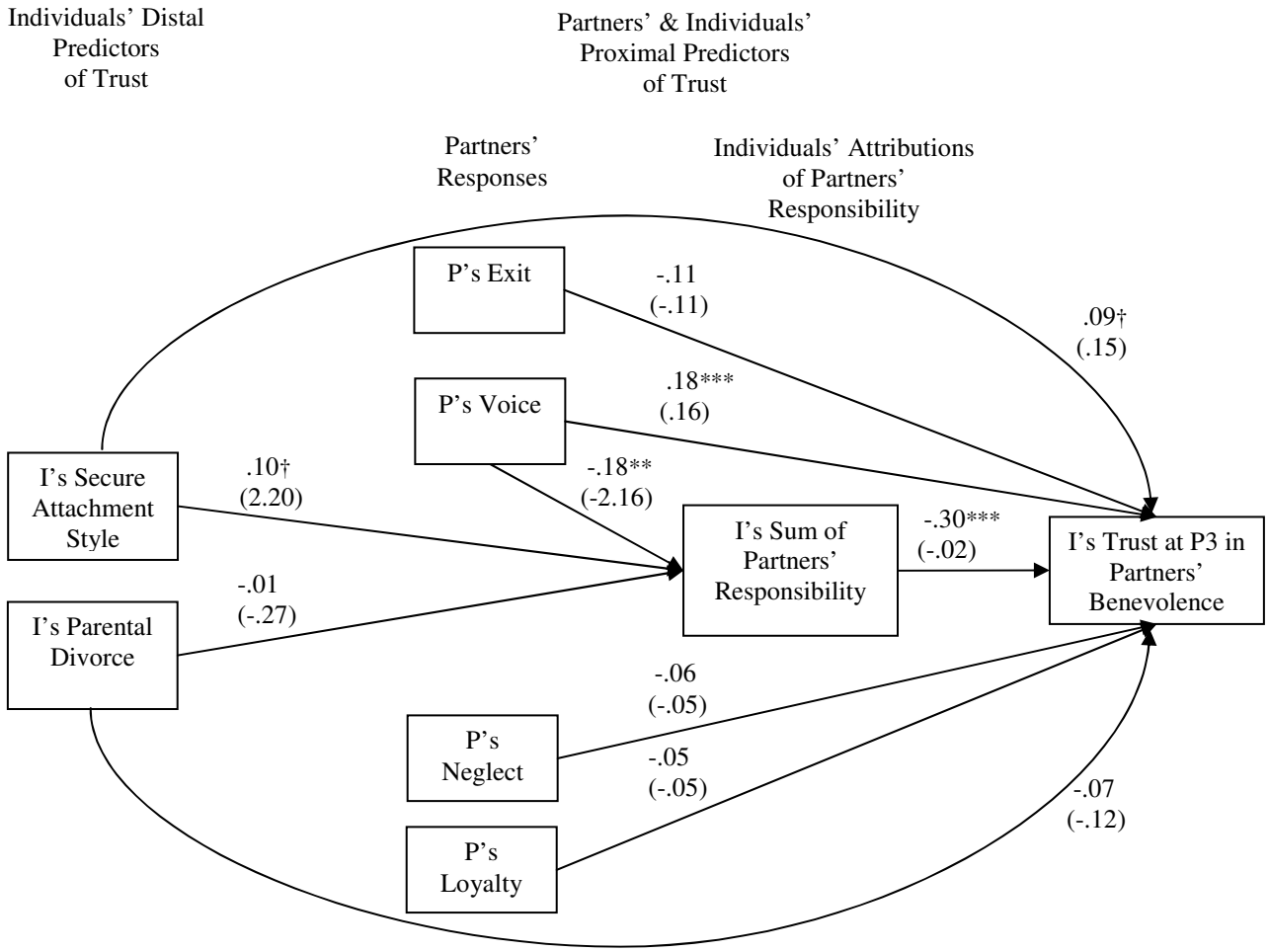
Figure 4. Model 2b: The Stage of Involvement Model of the Development of Trust in Partners' Benevolence



Note. $N = 311$. †$p < .10$. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Both unstandardized and standardized coefficients are shown; Unstandardized coefficients are in parentheses.

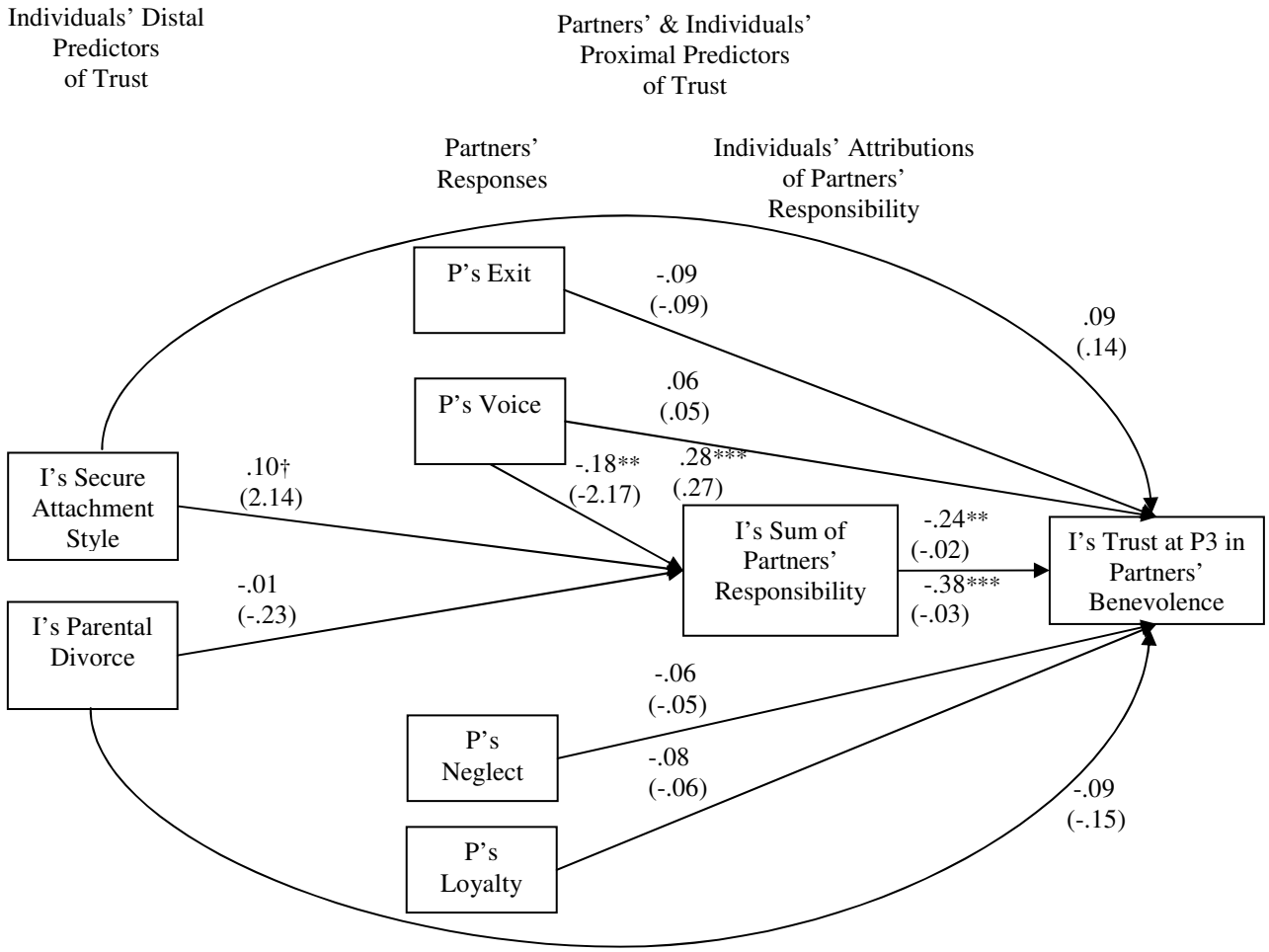
Figure 5. Model 3b: The Developmental Change in Involvement Model of the Development of Trust in Partners' Benevolence



Note. $N = 311$. †$p < .10$. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Both unstandardized and standardized coefficients are shown; Unstandardized coefficients are in parentheses.

Figure 6. Model 4b: The Gender Model of the Development of Trust in Partners' Benevolence



Note. $N = 311$. †$p < .10$. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

For the paths from attributions to trust and partners' voice to trust, above the line are men's coefficients, below the line are women's coefficients. Both unstandardized and standardized coefficients are shown; Unstandardized coefficients are in parentheses.

APPENDIX A

Part II: Demographic Information Form

Item one assesses gender of the respondent.
Item 16 assesses parental divorce, separation, death or intact.

RCODE	CPL NO.	CARD NO.	SEX	RECT	PH	RELNO
__ __ __	__ __ __	__ __	___	___	___	__ __
1 2 3	4 5 6	7 8	9 (1 = M) (2 = F)	10 (1 = PR) (2 = PP)	11	12 13

Part II: Demographic Information Form

1. Begin by circling the gender of the respondent. Then proceed.

Male = 1
Female = 2

2. What is your age as of your last birthday?

____ ____
(enter age in years)

3. **What is your race?** (circle one number)

Ask question but do not read list.

African – American or Black 1
Asian or Pacific Islander 2
Caucasion or White 3
American Indian, Alaska Native 4
or
Hispanic or Latin American origin 5
Other 6
specify:_____
Don't know/Not sure 7
Refused 9

4. **Which of these phrases best describes the size of the area you lived in while you were in junior high and high school? Was it a** ….(circle one)

Rural area or village? 1

A town of 2,000 – 50,000 people? 2

A medium-sized city of 50,000 – 200,000 people? 3

or A large city of more than 200,000 people? 4

5. **Some people have a particular nationality or ethnicity in their family background that they identify with. Is this true of you?** (Circle one)

If yes, ask: "**What is it?**"_____Yes 1
(write response here) No 2

If yes, ask Question 6. If no, go to Question 7.

6. **How much of an influence does your ethnic background have on you?**

Does is have a …(circle one)

Strong influence? 1
Moderate influence? 2
Slight influence? or 3
No influence at all? 4

7. **What is the highest level of schooling completed by…**

(circle one number for each):

	High School	College or Trade School	Graduate School
A. You?	<9 9 10 11 12	13 14 15 16	17 18 19 20+
B. Your Father?	<9 9 10 11 12	13 14 15 16	17 18 19 20+
C. Your Mother?	<9 9 10 11 12	13 14 15 16	17 18 19 20+

8. **What is your current religion, if any? (circle one)**

Ask question but do not read list.

Protestant 1
Roman Catholic 2
Jewish 3
Baptist 4
Nondenominational 5
Atheist, agnostic, or none 6
Write in name of religion:_____Other: 7

9. **Would you say you are…** (circle one):

Very religious? 1
Somewhat religious? 2

Not very religious? or 3
Not at all religious? 4

10. What is your current occupation?

_____ ____ ____
(write exact response) (enter 2-digit code here)

Please describe what you do in a few words.

_____
(write exact response)

11. How many hours do you work for pay each week? ___ ___ ___
(enter hours)

12. What is your best estimate of how much money you yourself make each year before deductions? (circle one)

Ask question but do not read list.

Less than $5,000 1
$5,000 TO 9,999 2
$10,000 TO 14,999 3
$15,000 TO 19,999 4
$20,000 TO 24,999 5
$25,000 TO 29,999 6
$30,000 TO 39,999 7
$40,000 TO 49,999 8
$50,000 AND ABOVE 9

13. Do you have any children? (circle one)

(If yes, ask: "How many?") Yes 1
____ ____
(enter number)
No 2

14. Did your parents live together all of the time while you were growing up? (circle one)

(If yes, ask Question 15) Yes 1
(If no, go to Question 16) No 2

15. Are your parents still living together? (circle one)

(If yes, skip to Question 23) Yes 1
(IF NO, CONTINUE WITH QUESTION 16) No 2

16. What caused your parents to separate – were they divorced, separated, did one die, or what happened? (circle one)

Ask question but do not read list.

Parents divorced 1
Parents separated 2
Father died 3
Mother died 4
(skip to Question 23) Both parents died 5
Other 6

_____
(write exact response)

17. How old were you when your parents first no longer lived together?

____ ____
(enter age in years)

18. After your parent(s) (divorced, separated, or died), with whom did you primarily live? (circle one)

Ask question but do not read list.

Mother 1
Father 2
_____(write exact response) Other: (specify) 3
(skip to Question 20) Not applicable 4

Ask Question 19: If one parent died and respondent live with "other" If parents divorced or separated Otherwise, skip to Question 20.

19. How often did you visit with the parent(s) that you did NOT live with? (circle one)

Ask question but do not read list.

Never 1
Less than once a year 2
Once a year 3

A few times a year 4
Once a month 5
Two or three times a month 6
Once a week 7
More than once a week 8
Not applicable 9

20. Did either parent remarry? (circle one)

Father 1
Mother
Both 3
(skip to Question 23) Neither 4

21. If one or both of your parents remarried, how old were YOU at the time of the remarriage?

____ ____
(enter age in years at the time mother remarried

____ ____
(enter age in years at the time father remarried

22. If one or both of your parents remarried, how many times did they remarry?

____
(enter times mother remarried)

____
(enter times father remarried)

23. What was your father's main occupation during the years you were in school?
Occupation: _____
(write exact response)

____ ____
(enter 2-digit code here)

24. What was your mother's main occupation during the years you were in school?
Occupation: _____
(write exact response)

____ ____
(enter 2-digit code here)

25. What was your father's religion while you were growing up, if any?

Ask question but do not read list. Circle one:

Protestant 1
Roman Catholic 2
Jewish 3
Baptist 4
Nondenominational 5
Atheist, agnostic, or none 6
Write in name of religion:_____Other: 7

26. Would you say he was…

Very religious? 1
Somewhat religious? 2
Not very religious? or 3
Not at all religious? 4

27. What was your mother's religion while you were growing up, if any?

Ask question but do not read list. Circle one:

Protestant 1
Roman Catholic 2
Jewish 3
Baptist 4
Nondenominational 5
Atheist, agnostic, or none 6
Write in name of religion:_____Other: 7

28. Would you say she was…

Very religious? 1
Somewhat religious? 2
Not very religious? or 3
Not at all religious? 4

29. Are you an only child, the oldest child in your family, the youngest, or in between? (circle one)

Ask question but do not read list.

(Go to Part III) Only child 1
(Go to Question 30) Oldest child 2
(Go to Question 30) Middle child 3
(Go to Question 30) Youngest child 4

30. How many siblings do you have?

____ ____
(enter number)

If parents remarried, ask Questions 31-33. Otherwise, skip to Part III

31. How many are…
biological siblings, including half siblings?

____ ____
(enter number)

32. How many are stepsiblings
that lived primarily in your family?

____ ____
(enter number)

33. How many are stepsiblings
that only visited your family?

____ ____
(enter number)

APPENDIX B

Part V: Relationship Background Form

Item three assesses relationship stage at Phase 1.
Item 17 assesses romantic attachment style.

RCODE	CPL NO.	CARD NO.	SEX	RECT	PH	RELNO
__ __ __	__ __ __	__ __	___	___	___	__ __
1 2 3	4 5 6	7 8	9 (1 = M) (2 = F)	10 (1 = PR) (2 = PP)	11	12 13

Part V: Relationship Background Form

Write in the first name and first initial of the last name of the new dating partner: _____.

1. **How old were you when you first met (first name and initial of DP)?**

____

(age entered as number of years)

2. **We want to know how long ago your relationship with (name of DP) began. By relationship, we mean when you first started dating, or first became friends, or got to know (him/her) in some other way. How long ago was it? (Write response here_____).**

___ ___ ___.___ ___
(code as number of months)

3. **Which of the following best describes your relationship with (name of DP) right now?**

Hand respondent the card with the descriptions on them and read them out loud.

(circle one number)

Would you say you are…

casually dating, which means a time in a relationship when partners do not see themselves as a couple, and they may or may not be dating only each other. 1

or…seriously dating, which means that each partner and other people see them as a couple. For example, they are invited to parties as a pair, and they probably date only each other. **2**

or…privately committed to marriage, which means that the partners have arrived at an understanding that they will get married. They may not have announced their plans to others, just that the decision has been made between the two of them. **3**

or…formally engaged, which means that the couple has made an official commitment to each other to marry. They may have exchanged a ring, and have probably announced their intentions to family and friends. **4**

or…broken up, which means that the couple has purposely stopped seeing each other. **5**

If respondent answers before entire list is read, circle response and move to next question.

4. Here are some cards that have different relationship events on them. Please tell me which one describes the status of your relationship right now.

Hand respondent the cards corresponding to the relationship events. Make sure they read each one.

(circle one number)

know each other, without romantically involved	1
date and live in separate residences	2
live together three to four days a week, but keep separate residences	3
live together every day but keep separate residences	4
live together and put both of your possessions in one residence	5

5. Now, out of all of the time you've had a relationships with (name of DP), tell me the total length of time you have spent in each of these arrangements.
How long did you …

Hold each card in front of the respondent as you read it.

a. **know each other, without being romantically involved** (write response_____)
___ ___ ___. ___ ___

(code as number of months)

b. **date and live in separate residences** (write response_____)

___ ___ ___. ___ ___
(code as number of months)

c. live together three to four days a week but keep separate residences
(write response_____)

___ ___ ___. ___ ___
(code as number of months)

d. **live together every day but keep separate residences**
(write response_____)

___ ___ ___. ___ ___
(code as number of months)

e. **live together and put both of your possessions in one residence**
(write response_____)

___ ___ ___. ___ ___
(code as number of months)

6. **Are there or have there been times in your relationship with (name of DP) when you were dating others?** (circle one)

(If yes, go to box) Yes 1
(If no, go to Question 7) No 2

If yes, ask:

a. You said your relationship with (name of DP) began _____ months/years ago (look at answer to Question 2). During that time, how many other persons have you dated besides (name of DP)?

___ ___
(enter number of persons)

b. During your relationship with (name of DP), for what total length of time have you dated others?
_____ (write response)

___ ___ ___. ___ ___
(code as number of months)

c. Are you dating others right now?

d. How many people other than your dating partner are you dating or seeing right now?

___ ___
(enter number)

7. **Have you and (name of DP) had sexual intercourse with each other?** (circle one)

(If yes, go to Question 8 if male and Question 9 if female) Yes 1
(If no, go to Question 10) No 2

8. FOR MALES

If yes and MALE, ask:

a. "Have there been times in your relationship when (name of DP) was pregnant by you?" (circle one)

Yes 1
(If no, go to Question 10) No 2

If yes, ask:

"How many times?"

____
(enter number)

"How long ago?" (write response for each pregnancy)

_____ ___ ___ ___. ___ ___
(response pregnancy 1) (code as number of months)

_____ ___ ___ ___. ___ ___
(response pregnancy 2) (code as number of months)

_____ ___ ___ ___. ___ ___
(response pregnancy 3) (code as number of months)

"What was the outcome of the pregnancy?" (Ask but do not read list; circle one)

miscarriage 1
abortion 2
birth of baby 3
still pregnant 4

9. FOR FEMALES

If yes and FEMALE, ask:

a. Have there been times in your relationship with (name of DP) when you were pregnant by (name of DP)?"
(circle one)

Yes 1
(If no, go to Question 10) No 2

If yes, ask:

"How many times?" _____
(enter number)

"How long ago?" (write response for each pregnancy)

___ ___ ___. ___ ___
_____ (code as number of months)
(response pregnancy 1)

_____ ___ ___ ___. ___ ___
(response pregnancy 2) (code as number of months)

_____ ___ ___ ___. ___ ___
(response pregnancy 3) (code as number of months)

b. **"Did you tell (name of DP) about your pregnancy?"** (circle one)

Yes 1
No 2

c. **"What was the outcome of the pregnancy?"** (Ask but do not read list; circle one)

miscarriage 1
abortion 2
birth of baby 3
still pregnant 4

10. **Did you have any romantic relationships with people of the opposite sex during junior high and high school?**

(If yes, go to Question 11) Yes 1
(If no, go to Question 15) No 2

11. If yes, ask: **"How many?"**

___ ___

12. **Out of all the romantic relationships you have just thought of, please tell me the first name of up to three partners.**

_____
(enter first name)

_____
(enter first name)

_____
(enter first name)

13. **How long were you in the relationship you had with first name?** (Repeat this question for each first name.)

Write response_____ ___ ___ ___. ___ ___
(code as number of months)

Write response_____ ___ ___ ___. ___ ___
(code as number of months)

Write response_____ ___ ___ ___. ___ ___
(code as number of months)

14. **What age were you at the beginning of the relationship with…**
(go through each name listed in Question 12)

___ ___
(age entered as number of years)

___ ___
(age entered as number of years)

___ ___
(age entered as number of years)

If respondent answered, "No," to the question, "Have you and (name of DP) had sexual intercourse with each other? ask Question 15. If they answered yes, skip to Question 16.

15. **Have you ever had sexual intercourse in <u>any</u> romantic relationships other than your relationship with (name of DP)?**

Yes 1
(If no, go to Question 17) No 2

16. **How old were you when you had your first sexual intercourse in <u>any</u> romantic relationship?**

___ ___
(age entered as number of years)

17. **We want to know how you feel in general about having close relationships with others. Please look at the following four statements as I read them and tell me which <u>one</u> best describes your feelings about getting close to others.**

Hand the respondent the form entitled RELATIONSHIPS WITH OTHERS.
Read the four paragraphs <u>exactly</u> as written.
Circle the number corresponding to respondent's response.

RELATIONSHIPS WITH OTHERS

It is easy for me to become emotionally close to others. I am comfortable depending on others and having others depend on me. I don't worry about being alone or having others not accept me. 1

I am comfortable without close emotional relationships. It is very important to me to feel independent and self-sufficient, and I prefer not to depend on others or have others depend on me. 2

I want to be completely emotionally intimate with others, but I often find that others are reluctant to get as close as I would like. I am uncomfortable being without close relationships, but I sometimes worry that others don't value me as much as I value them. 3

I am uncomfortable getting close to others. I want emotionally close relationships, but I find it difficult to trust others completely, or to depend on them. I worry that I will be hurt if I allow myself to become too close to others. 4

APPENDIX C

Part XI: Differences About Activities

RCODE	CPL NO.	CARD NO.	SEX	RECT	PH	RELNO
__ __ __	__ __ __	__ __	___	___	___	__ __
1 2 3	4 5 6	7 8	9	10	11	12 13
			(1 = M)	(1 = PR)		
			(2 = F)	(2 = PP)		

Part XI: Differences About Activities

In all relationships, partners sometimes have different ideas about how to spend their time. Please read each of these statements concerning the way you usually act when you and your partner have different ideas about what to do. Use this scale to show how often you react in this way. If you have that reaction frequently, circle the "6" below the statement; if you never have it, circle the "0"; if you constantly have it, circle the "8," and so on.

1. When I want to do one thing and my partner wants to do another, I talk to him or her about what to do.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
I never do this		I seldom do this		I sometimes do this		I frequently do this		I constantly do this

2. When my parent and I have different ideas about how to spend our time, I sulk and try to avoid my partner for a while.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
I never do this		I seldom do this		I sometimes do this		I frequently do this		I constantly do this

3. When my partner wants to do one thing and I want to do something else, I think about breaking up.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
I never do this		I seldom do this		I sometimes do this		I frequently do this		I constantly do this

4.When I want to do one thing and my partner wants to do another, I am loyal and quietly wait for things to change.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
I never do this		**I seldom do this**		**I sometimes do this**		**I frequently do this**		**I constantly do this**

5. When my partner and I have different ideas about how to spend our time, I calmly discuss things with my partner.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
I never do this		**I seldom do this**		**I sometimes do this**		**I frequently do this**		**I constantly do this**

6. When I want to do one thing and my partner wants to do another, I begin to think about ending our relationship.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
I never do this		**I seldom do this**		**I sometimes do this**		**I frequently do this**		**I constantly do this**

7. When my partner wants to do one thing and I want to do something else, I give my partner the benefit of the doubt and forget about it.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
I never do this		**I seldom do this**		**I sometimes do this**		**I frequently do this**		**I constantly do this**

8. When my partner and I have different ideas about how to spend our time, I think about breaking up.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
I never do this		**I seldom do this**		**I sometimes do this**		**I frequently do this**		**I constantly do this**

9. When my partner wants to do one thing and I want to do something else, I sulk and try to avoid my partner for awhile.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
I never do this		**I seldom do this**		**I sometimes do this**		**I frequently do this**		**I constantly do this**

10. When my partner and I have different ideas about how to spend our time, I give my partner the benefit of the doubt and forget about it.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
I never do this		**I seldom do this**		**I sometimes do this**		**I frequently do this**		**I constantly do this**

11. When I want do one thing and my partner wants to do another, I ignore the whole thing and try to spend less time with him or her.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
I never do this		**I seldom do this**		**I sometimes do this**		**I frequently do this**		**I constantly do this**

12. When my partner wants to do one thing and I want to do something else, I calmly discuss things with my partner.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
I never do this		**I seldom do this**		**I sometimes do this**		**I frequently do this**		**I constantly do this**

APPENDIX D

Part XI: Handling Problems in Relationships

The following items from Handling Problems in Relationships compose the measure of attributions: 6-33.

RCODE	CPL NO.	CARD NO.	SEX	RECT	PH	INTNO	RELNO
__ __ __	__ __ __	__ __	___	___	___	__ __	__ __
1 2 3	4 5 6	7 8	9 (1 = M) (2 = F)	10 (1 = PR) (2 = PP)	11	12 13	14 15

Part XI: Handling Problems in Relationships

To answer this questionnaire, I want you to think about the last time you and your dating partner openly disagreed about something. If you and your partner don't openly disagree, think about the time you personally felt upset about something in your relationship. There are lots of different ways that you might feel upset without arguing. For example, think about the last time you felt or thought that something is not right, that you wanted something different from what your partner wanted, that something needs to be done about this, that you wanted to pay back your partner, or that you wanted to run away from the problem. If you and your partner have had discussions about problems, think about the last time you did so. Spend a few moments thinking back to what happened the last time you experienced any or all of these things. Then answer the following questions with that time or incident in mind.

1. As best you can remember, what was the date (month, day, and year, if possible) of the incident or time you have in mind? _____.

2. Describe as completely as you can in your own words exactly what happened between you and your partner during the incident or time you have in mind:

3. What was the main problem about?

4. Using this scale, rate the intensity of the disagreement or feelings you experienced during the incident or time you have in mind:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not intense at all						**Extremely intense**

5. Using this scale, rate how responsible you and your partner were for the incident or time you have in mind:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I was totally responsible.			**We were equally responsible.**			**My partner was totally responsible.**

Part XI: Causes of Problems in Relationships

There are many different reasons why people might have a problem in their relationship. The next set of questions asks you to rate the degree to which different causes were responsible for the problem you had during the incident or time you have in mind. Some of the causes come from you, some from your partner, and some from things other than you or your partner.

6. I was responsible because of the physical condition I was in at the time.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

7. I was responsible because of some characteristic in his/her personality.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

8. I was responsible because I thought my behavior was in my partner's best interest.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

9. I was responsible because I asked, insisted, or expected my partner to behave as he/she did.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

10. I was responsible because of some bad feelings I have toward my partner.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

11. I was responsible because of doubts I have about my relationship with my partner.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

12. I was responsible because of the mood I was in at the time.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

13. I was responsible because of my own likes and dislikes.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

14. I was responsible because of something I had to do for the sake of someone other than my partner.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

15. I was responsible because I wanted to change my partner's behavior.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

16. I was responsible because I wanted to avoid hurting or offending my partner.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

17. I was responsible because I wanted to get something straight in my relationship with my partner.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

18. My partner was responsible because of the physical condition he/she was in at the time.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

19. My partner was responsible because of some characteristic of his/her personality.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

20. My partner was responsible because he/she thought his behavior was in my best interest.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

21. My partner was responsible because he/she asked, insisted, or expected me to behave as I did.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

22. My partner was responsible because of some bad feelings he/she has toward me.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

23. My partner was responsible because of doubts he/she has about our relationship.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

24. My partner was responsible because of the mood he/she was in at the time.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

25. My partner was responsible because of his/her likes and dislikes.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

26. My partner was responsible because of something he/she had to do for the sake of someone other than me.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

27. My partner was responsible because he/she wanted to change my behavior.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

28. My partner was responsible because he/she wanted to avoid hurting or offending me.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

29. My partner was responsible because he/she wanted to get something straight in our relationship.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

30. Friends, family, or other people did things at the time that made them responsible.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

31. Friends, family, or other people did things in the past that made them responsible.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

32. The activity that the problem was about was responsible.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

33. Some unusual situation or circumstance was responsible.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

Part XI: Outcomes of Problems in Relationships

When people have a problem in a relationship, it can have many different outcomes. Using the questions below, please rate the degree to which each outcome was true of the incident or time you have in mind.

34. I ended up feeling hurt.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

35. We had fun making up.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

36. I felt that talking about it was a waste of time.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

37. I tried to hide my feelings and act as though nothing was wrong.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

38. My partner agreed to change but never did.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

39. You ended up feeling annoyed or angry.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

40. Both of us gave in some to the other.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

41. I left the room or walked away from the discussion.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

42. Afterwards, my partner went ahead and did what he/she wanted anyway.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

43. We started out disagreeing about the problem, and ended up arguing about other things.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

44. I made sure the discussion got stopped early on.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

45. Later, my partner used what I said against me.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

46. Afterwards, I felt closer to my partner and more loving than before.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

47. I ended up going along with what my partner wanted.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

48. We ended up agreeing that it was okay to disagree.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

49. I sulked or pouted to let my partner know something was wrong.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

50. Afterwards, I felt I understood my partner better than before.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

51. I kept my distance until I cooled down.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true			**Not sure**			**Definitely true**

APPENDIX E

Part XVIII: Relationship Questionnaire II

The following items from Relationship Questionnaire II compose the Dyadic Trust Scale: 3, 4, 7, 10, 12, 15, 17, and 18.

RCODE	CPL NO.	CARD NO.	SEX	RECT	PH	RELNO
__ __ __	__ __ __	__ __	___	___	___	__ __
1 2 3	4 5 6	7 8	9 (1 = M) (2 = F)	10 (1 = PR) (2 = PP)	11	12 13

Part XVIII: Relationship Questionnaire II

For each item below, please circle the number that best describes your beliefs about your relationship with your dating partner at the present time in your relationship. A blank in an item refers to your dating partner.

The number 7 means you strongly agree with the statement.
The number 1 means you strongly disagree with the statement.
The number 4 means you neither agree nor disagree with the statement.
The numbers 2 and 3 mean you disagree somewhat, and the numbers 5 and 6 mean you agree somewhat, depending on how strongly you agree or disagree.

1. I feel our love is based on a deep and abiding friendship.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			Neither agree nor disagree			Strongly agree

2. Sometimes I feel I can't control my thoughts; they are obsessively on ____.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			Neither agree nor disagree			Strongly agree

3. There are times when my partner cannot be trusted.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			**Neither agree nor disagree**			**Strongly agree**

4. I feel that my partner can be counted on to help me.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			**Neither agree nor disagree**			**Strongly agree**

5. I would feel deep despair if ____ left me.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			**Neither agree nor disagree**			**Strongly agree**

6. I express my love for my partner through the enjoyment of common activities and mutual interests.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			**Neither agree nor disagree**			**Strongly agree**

7. My partner is perfectly honest and truthful with me.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			**Neither agree nor disagree**			**Strongly agree**

8. My love for my partner involves solid, deep affection.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			**Neither agree nor disagree**			**Strongly agree**

9. I would rather be with _____ than anyone else.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			**Neither agree nor disagree**			**Strongly agree**

10. I feel that I can trust my partner completely.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			**Neither agree nor disagree**			**Strongly agree**

11. An important factor in my love for my partner is that we laugh together.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			**Neither agree nor disagree**			**Strongly agree**

12. My partner is truly sincere in his/her promises.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			**Neither agree nor disagree**			**Strongly agree**

13. My partner is one of the most likable people I know.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			**Neither agree nor disagree**			**Strongly agree**

14. The companionship I share with my partner is an important part of my love for him/her.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			**Neither agree nor disagree**			**Strongly agree**

15. I feel that my partner does not show me enough consideration.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			**Neither agree nor disagree**			**Strongly agree**

16. I feel happy when I am doing something to make ____ happy.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			**Neither agree nor disagree**			**Strongly agree**

17. My partner treats me fairly and justly.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			**Neither agree nor disagree**			**Strongly agree**

18. My partner is primarily interested in his/her own welfare.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			**Neither agree nor disagree**			**Strongly agree**

19. I'd get jealous if I thought ____ were falling in love with someone else.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			**Neither agree nor disagree**			**Strongly agree**

20. I yearn to know all about ____.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			**Neither agree nor disagree**			**Strongly agree**

21. I want ___ - physically, emotionally, mentally.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			**Neither agree nor disagree**			**Strongly agree**

22. I have an endless appetite for affection from ___.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			**Neither agree nor disagree**			**Strongly agree**

23. For me, ___ is the perfect romantic partner.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			**Neither agree nor disagree**			**Strongly agree**

24. I sense my body responding when ____ touches me.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			**Neither agree nor disagree**			**Strongly agree**

25. ___ always seems to be on my mind.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			**Neither agree nor disagree**			**Strongly agree**

26. I want ___ to know me - my thoughts, my fears, and my hopes.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			**Neither agree nor disagree**			**Strongly agree**

27. I eagerly look for signs indicating ___'s desire for me.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			**Neither agree nor disagree**			**Strongly agree**

28. I possess a powerful attraction for ___.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			**Neither agree nor disagree**			**Strongly agree**

29. I get extremely depressed when things don't go right in my relationship with ___.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree			**Neither agree nor disagree**			**Strongly agree**

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Vita

Christine Robison Gray was born February 7, 1975 in Baltimore, Maryland to parents, Drs. Susan Miller and Philip Dean Robison. The only child of clinical psychologists, Christine was early exposed to many theories regarding healthy and dysfunctional relationships. Her interest in close relationships was launched. After graduating from Centennial High School in 1993, Christine went on to do her undergraduate work at The Pennsylvania State University. While at Penn State, Christine was inducted into many honor societies including Phi Beta Kappa, National Golden Key Society, and Psi Chi National Honor Society. In May 1997, Christine graduated cum laude with a Bachelor of Arts in Psychology from The Pennsylvania State University. Christine began her graduate career at the University of Texas at Austin in the fall of 1998. Christine was a Mary Ellen Durrett Scholarship Recipient for two consecutive years. In May 2002, Christine received the degree of Master of Arts from the University of Texas at Austin.

Christine met her husband, Jason Lee Gray during her freshman year at Penn State. Christine and Jason were married on December 28, 1996. Christine and Jason celebrated the birth of their first child, Mark Andrew Gray in April 2003.

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